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ABSTRACT

Ten issues of a monthly social studies resource, each with a different topical focus, are included in this document. The issues focus on: the American family; the environment; the developing world; U.S. and world population; U.S. and world energy; the arms race; employment and housing; world product and trade; social programs in the federal budget; U.S. and world food. In addition to the visual reference materials, articles, and essays on the selected topics also are included. The maps, graphs, and other representations of data may be copied and reproduced by teachers and students. (DB)

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World Eagle

Vol. XIII, Nos. 1-10

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The Monthly Social Studies Resource
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SEPTEMBER 1989
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THE ENVIRONMENT

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September	**The American Family**	**February**	**The Arms Race**
October	**The Environment**	**March**	**Employment and Housing**
November	**The Developing World**	**April**	**World Product and Trade**
December	**U.S. and World Population**	**May**	**Social Programs in the Federal Budget**
January	**U.S. and World Energy**	**June**	**U.S. and World Food**

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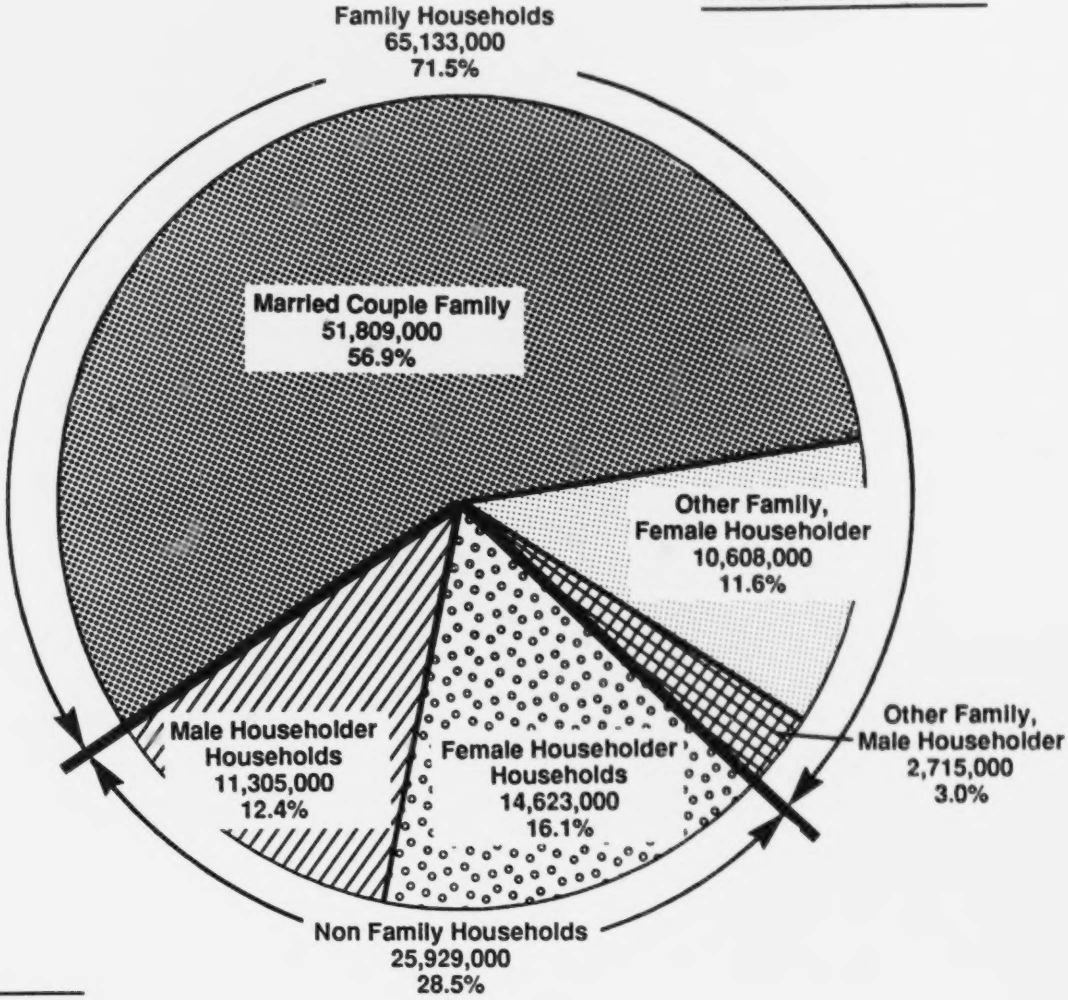
NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS IN U.S. CONTINUES TO GROW; 72.1% ARE FAMILY HOUSEHOLDS

Total of 91,061,000 Households in the U.S. in March 1988



Albany, July 6 -- "[New York State's] highest court [the Court of Appeals] today expanded the legal definition of a family, holding that a gay couple who had lived together for a decade could be considered a family under New York City's rent-control regulations."
The New York Times, July 7, 1989, page 1, columns 1 & 2.

About 84% of Non Family Households are comprised of people who live alone (21,884,000)

Source: World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Bureau of the Census. 1989 Statistical Abstract of the United States. Table 58. Page 45.

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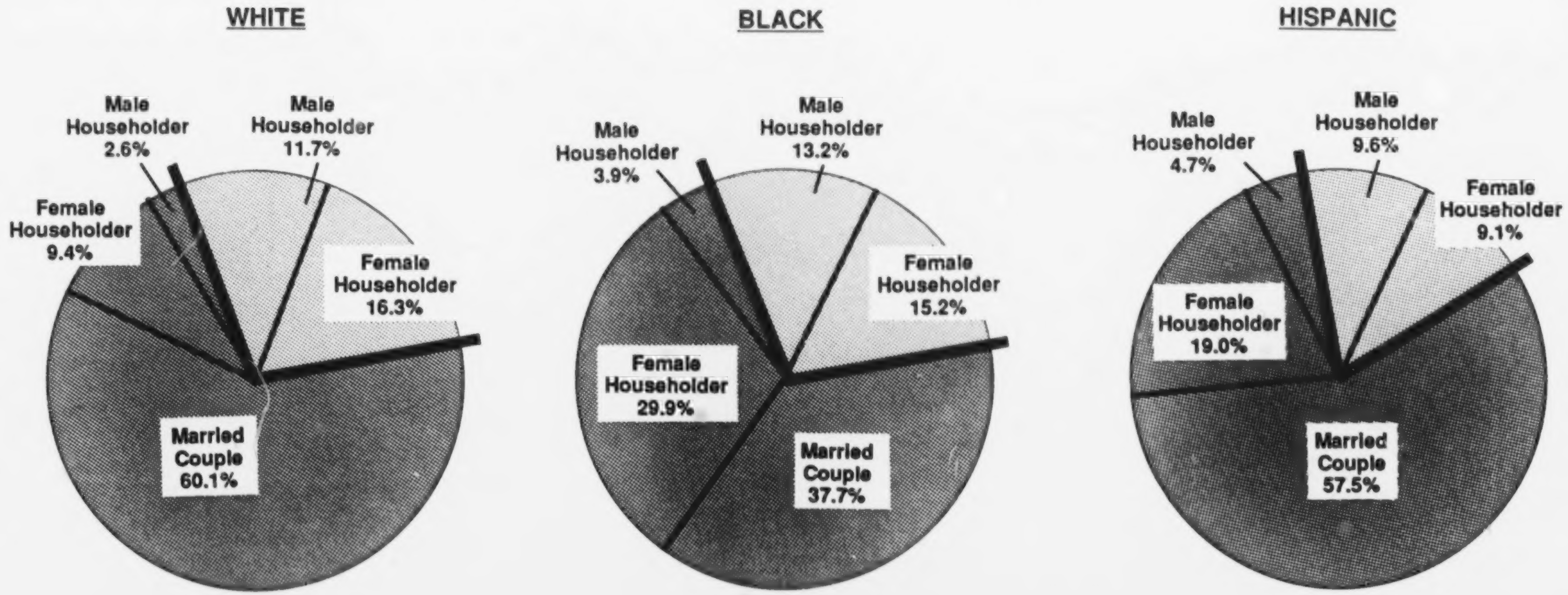
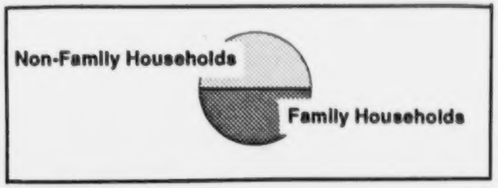
COMPOSITION OF AMERICA'S HOUSEHOLDS, BY RACE: 1987



Family Households	55,676,000
Non-Family Households	21,608,000
TOTAL	77,284,000

Family Households	7,096,000
Non-Family Households	2,826,000
TOTAL	9,922,000

Family Households	4,403,000
Non-Family Households	1,015,000
TOTAL	5,418,000



World Eagle charts. Data from 1989 Statistical Abstract of the United States. Table 60.

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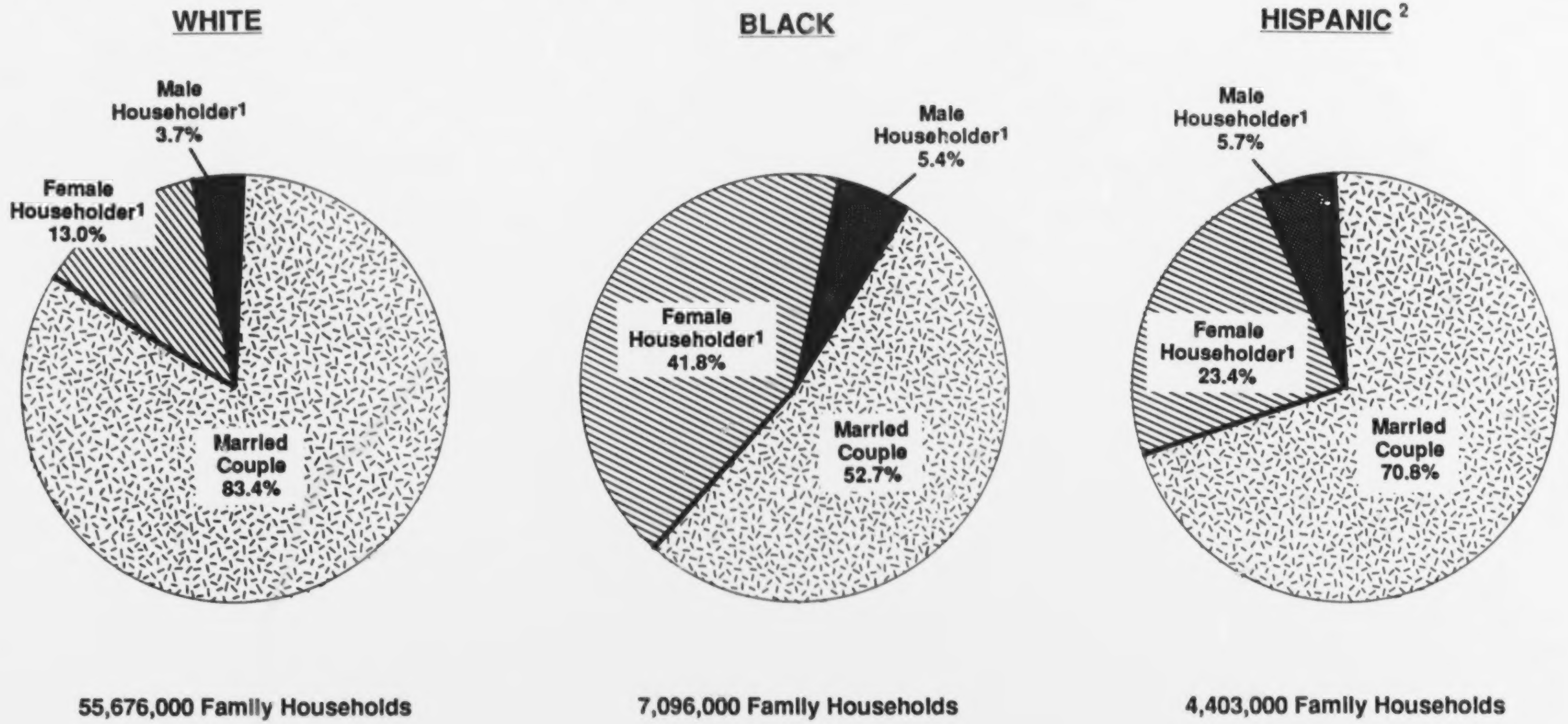
COMPOSITION OF AMERICA'S FAMILY HOUSEHOLDS, BY RACE: 1987



1 No spouse present
2 Hispanic persons may be of any race

World Eagle charts. Data from 1989 Statistical Abstract of the United States. Table 60.

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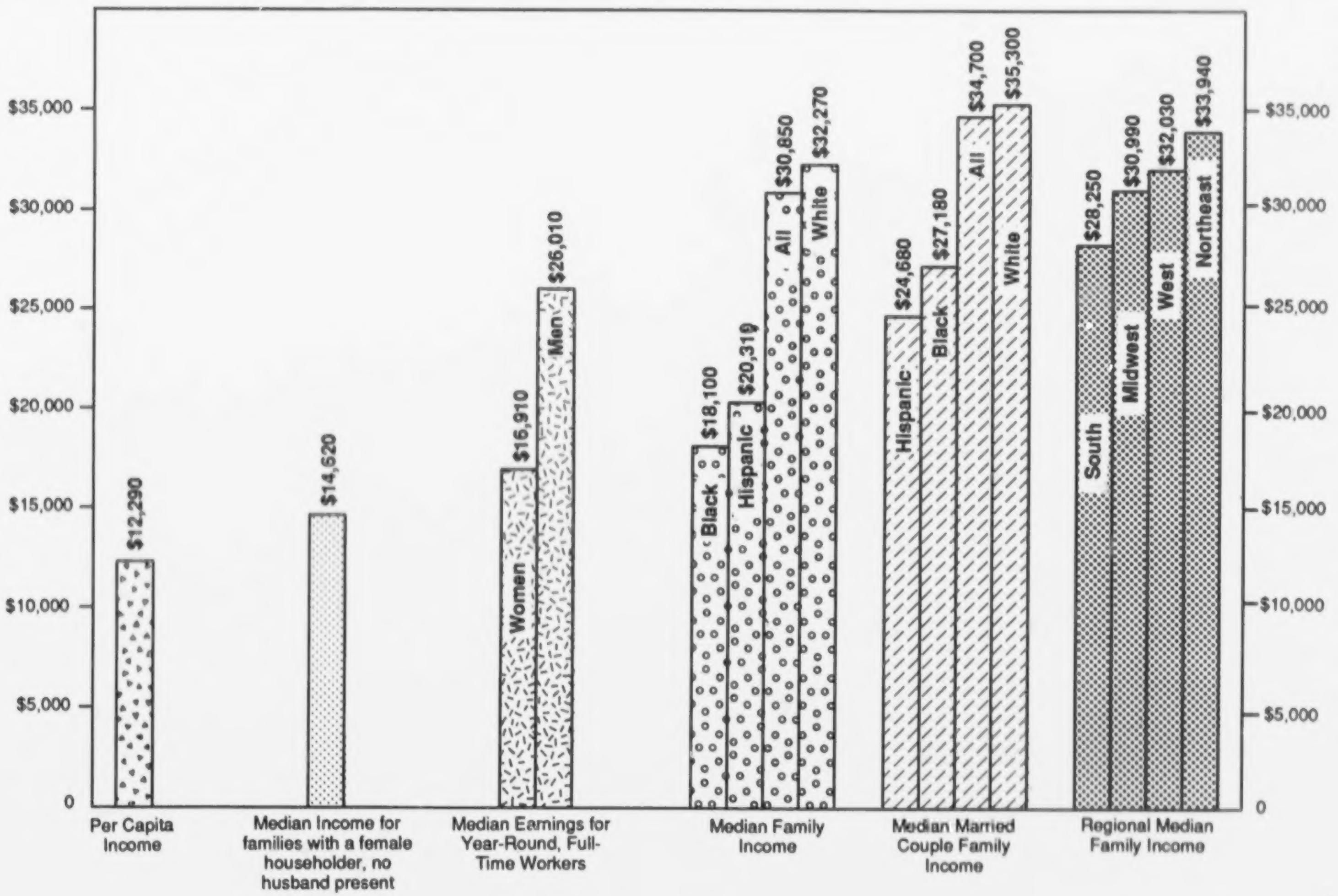
U.S. MEDIAN INCOMES FOR FAMILIES AND OTHERS, 1987

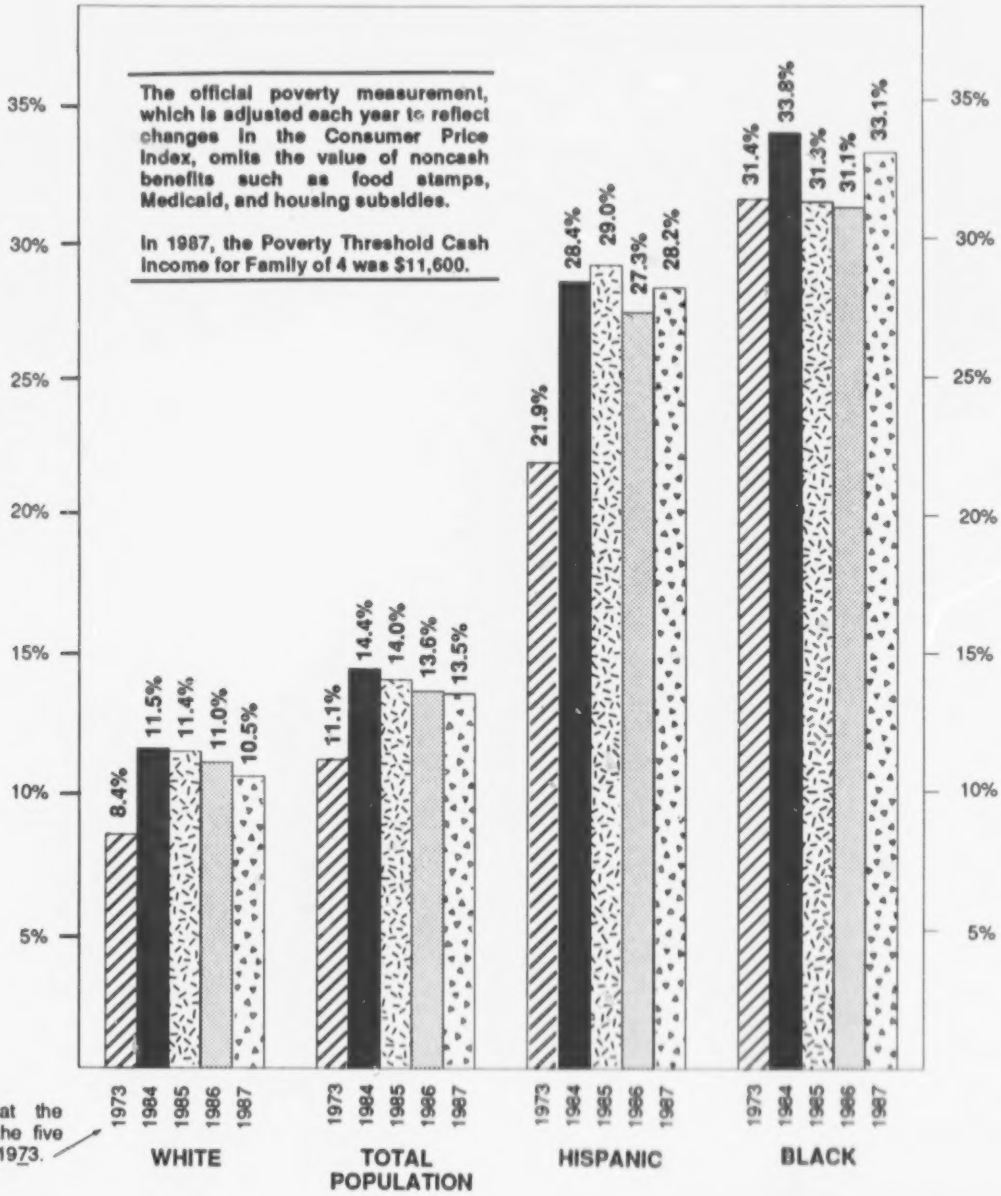


World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Bureau of the Census Release CB88-141, August 31, 1988.

IN 1987, 13-1/2% OF TOTAL U.S. POPULATION WAS ESTIMATED TO BE BELOW POVERTY LEVEL

White 10.5% ***Hispanic 28.2%*** ***Black 33.1%***

For the five years: 1973, 1984, 1985, 1986, 1987.
For each category, percentage of the population living below the U.S. Bureau of the Census Poverty Level. Hispanic people may be of any race.



The official poverty measurement, which is adjusted each year to reflect changes in the Consumer Price Index, omits the value of noncash benefits such as food stamps, Medicaid, and housing subsidies.

In 1987, the Poverty Threshold Cash Income for Family of 4 was $11,600.

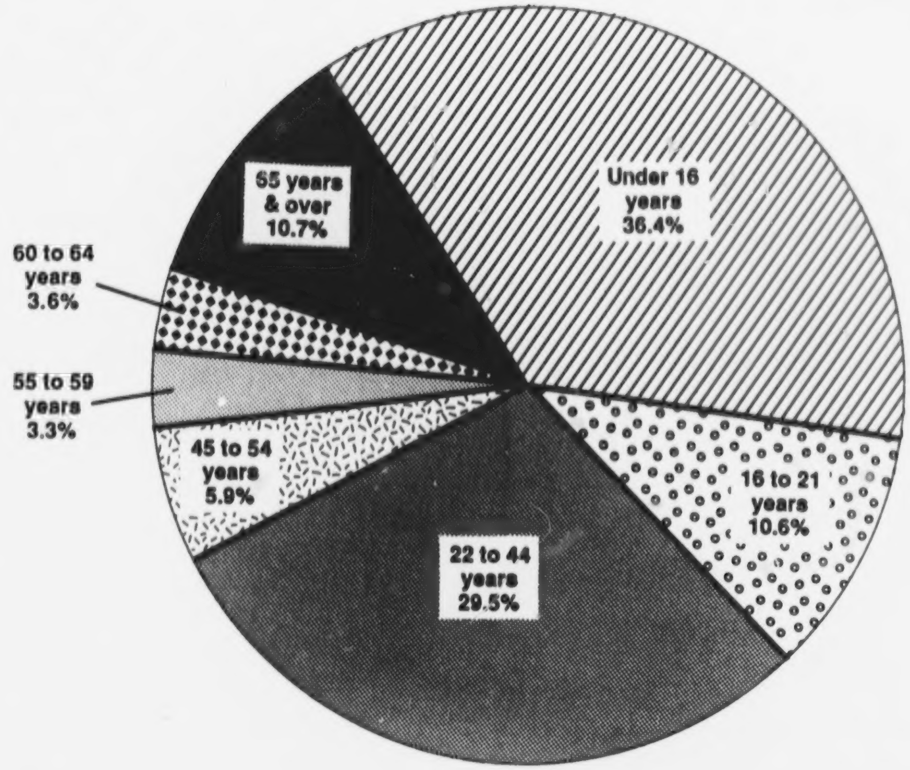
Note that the first of the five years is 1973.

World Eagle chart. Data from The Bureau of the Census, 1984; the 1986 Statistical Abstract of the United States; The New York Times 1986 and 1987, and The New York Times, September 1, 1988. P. 39.

IN 1987, 32 1/2 MILLION PERSONS IN THE U.S. WERE ESTIMATED TO BE BELOW POVERTY LEVEL. THOSE UNDER AGE 16 CONSTITUTED LARGEST GROUP.

(Money income only. Noncash benefits not considered.)

In 1987, the Poverty Threshold Cash Income for Family of 4 was $11,600 .



All persons: 32,546,000

The official poverty measurement, which is adjusted each year to reflect changes in the Consumer Price Index, omits the value of noncash benefits such as food stamps, Medicaid, and housing subsidies

World Eagle chart. Data from phone to U.S. Bureau of the Census.

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FOCUS Section

IN 1988, MORE THAN ONE-QUARTER OF AMERICA'S CHILDREN UNDER 18 YEARS WERE NOT LIVING WITH TWO PARENTS

(Excludes persons under 18 years old who were maintaining households or family groups. Numbers in thousands)

Living arrangement	1988	1980	1970	1960	Percent distribution 1988	1980	1970	1960
All Races								
Children under 18 years	63,179	63,427	69,162	63,727	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Living with—								
Two parents	45,942	48,624	58,939	55,877	72.7	76.7	85.2	87.7
One parent	15,329	12,466	8,199	5,829	24.3	19.7	11.9	9.1
Mother only	13,521	11,406	7,452	5,105	21.4	18.0	10.8	8.0
Father only	1,808	1,060	748	724	2.9	1.7	1.1	1.1
Other relatives	1,483	1,949	1,547	1,601	2.3	3.1	2.2	2.5
Nonrelatives only	425	388	477	420	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7
White								
Children under 18 years	51,030	52,242	58,790	55,077	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Living with—								
Two parents	40,287	43,200	52,624	50,082	78.9	82.7	89.5	90.9
One parent	9,624	7,901	5,109	3,932	18.9	15.1	8.7	7.1
Mother only	8,160	7,059	4,581	3,381	16.0	13.5	7.8	6.1
Father only	1,464	842	528	551	2.9	1.6	0.9	1.0
Other relatives	818	887	696	774	1.6	1.7	1.2	1.4
Nonrelatives only	301	254	362	288	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.5
Black[1]								
Children under 18 years	9,699	9,375	9,422	8,650	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Living with—								
Two parents	3,739	3,956	5,508	5,795	38.6	42.2	58.5	67.0
One parent	5,247	4,297	2,996	1,897	54.1	45.8	31.8	21.9
Mother only	4,959	4,117	2,783	1,723	51.1	43.9	29.5	19.9
Father only	288	180	213	173	3.0	1.9	2.3	2.0
Other relatives	620	999	820	827	6.4	10.7	8.7	9.6
Nonrelatives only	94	123	97	132	1.0	1.3	1.0	1.5
Hispanic[2]								
Children under 18 years	6,786	5,459	[3] 4,006	(NA)	100.0	100.0	100.0	(NA)
Living with—								
Two parents	4,497	4,116	3,111	(NA)	66.3	75.4	77.7	(NA)
One parent	2,047	1,152	(NA)	(NA)	30.2	21.1	(NA)	(NA)
Mother only	1,845	1,069	(NA)	(NA)	27.2	19.6	(NA)	(NA)
Father only	202	83	(NA)	(NA)	3.0	1.5	(NA)	(NA)
Other relatives	180	183	(NA)	(NA)	2.7	3.4	(NA)	(NA)
Nonrelatives only	62	8	(NA)	(NA)	0.9	0.1	(NA)	(NA)

[1] Non-White for 1960.

[2] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

[3] Persons under 18 years.

Source of 1970 Hispanic-origin data: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, PC(2)-1C, *Persons of Spanish Origin.*

Source of 1960 data: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1960 Census of Population, PC(2)-4B, *Persons by Family Characteristics*, tables 1, 2, and 19. (Excludes inmates of institutions and military in barracks.)

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports. Population Characteristics. Series P-20, No. 433. Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1988. Table A-4. P.61.

IN SINGLE-PARENT HOUSEHOLD, CHILDREN NOW MORE LIKELY TO LIVE WITH DIVORCED OR NEVER-MARRIED PARENT

More and more children under 18 are likely to live with one parent -- that's a trend we've often noted before. But not only are there more children living with single parents, the children live with parents whose marital status differs greatly from that of single parents a generation ago. Historical data in our recent marital status report reveal some striking changes.

In 1960, children in one-parent situations were much more likely to be living with a single parent who was widowed or separated than in 1988. Arlene Saluter, the analyst who prepares the report, observes "There was a much smaller number of children in one-parent situations than today and divorce was much less common. In the past, more of the children lived with parents who were widowed."

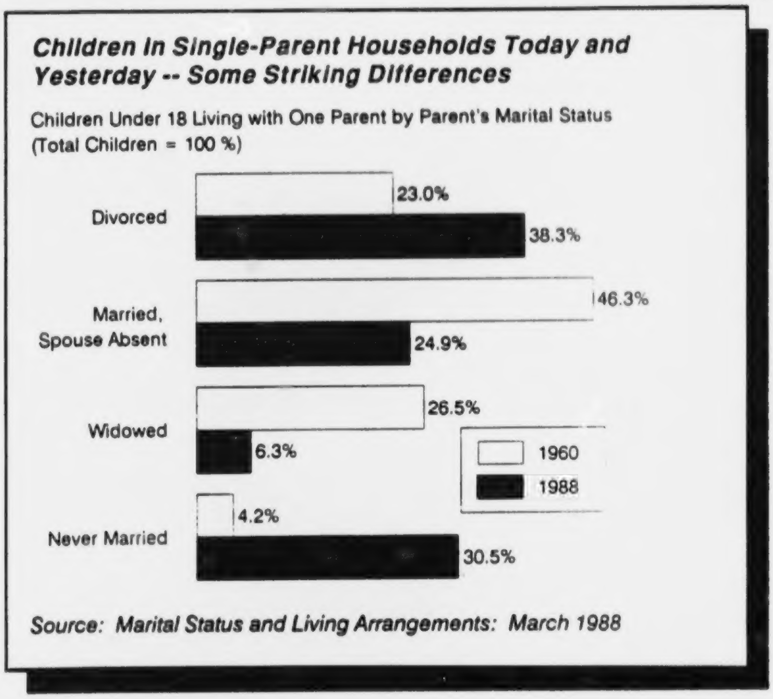
By 1988, as the graph suggests, the proportions had changed dramatically. Proportonately fewer children were living with married parents whose spouses were absent (from 46.3 percent to 24.9 percent). Divorce has made a sizeable difference too. During the past 28 years, the percentage grew from 23.0 percent to 38.3 percent.

The most notable change during this period has been in the never-married category: about 30.5 percent of children in one-parent homes live with a parent who has never been married, far above the 4.2 percent in 1960.

Arlene notes that some of this gain may be due to a change in procedure. "In 1982, we improved our procedures for identifying subfamilies." What's a subfamily? "For example, if a woman and her child live with her parents, that's a subfamily within the family. Before '82, we counted subfamilies based on responses to questions on relationship, marital status, age, and sex. Now we ask directly who the parent of the child is. We don't feel this change explains away all of the high increase in never-marrieds. We saw that increase even before we made the change."

Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1988, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 433, is available for $4.75 from the U.S. Government Printing Office (stock number 803-005-00032-0). For more information, contact Arlene Saluter, Population Division (301/763-7987).

Children In Single-Parent Households Today and Yesterday -- Some Striking Differences



Source: Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1988

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Census and You, April 1989.

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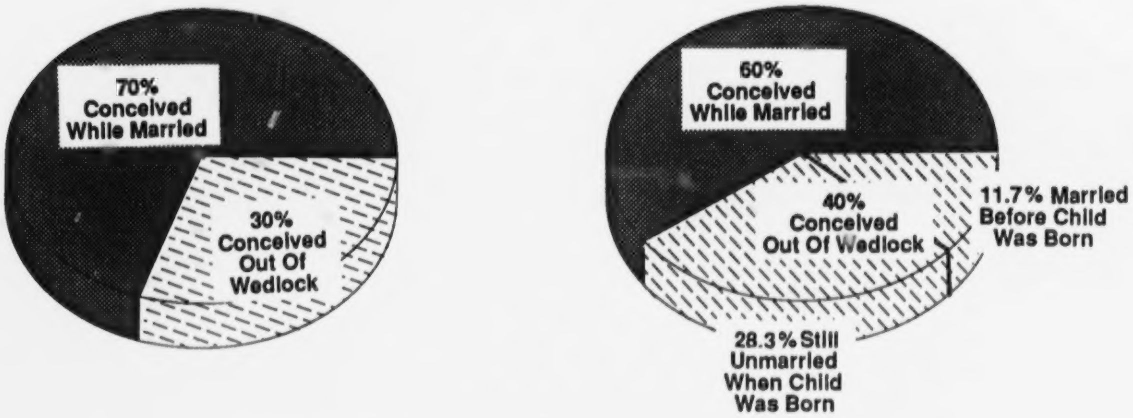
FOCUS Section

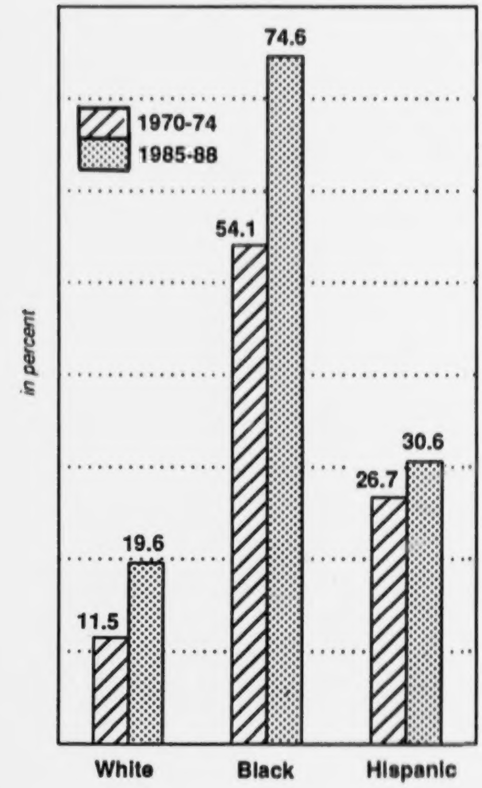
MOTHERHOOD IN AMERICA

The Bureau of the Census has reported that the national fertility rate was 69.7 births per 1,000 women aged 18 to 44 in the year ending June 1988. The bureau also reported:

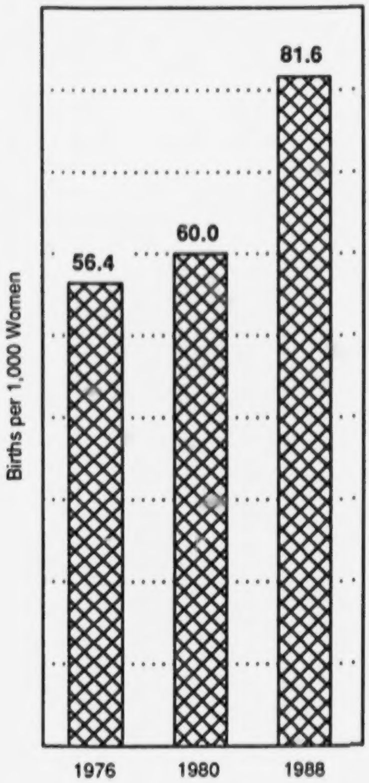
Women 15 to 29 Giving Birth to Their First Child



Unwed First Mothers



Fertility Rate Women 30 to 34



World Eagle charts based on Bureau of the Census report, June 21, 1989. as cited in The Boston Globe, June 22, 1989. P. 3.

TREND TO DEFER MARRIAGE CONTINUES

Table A-1. **Percent Single (Never Married), by Age and Sex: 1988, 1980, 1970, and 1960**

Age	Women				Men			
	1988	1980	1970	1960	1988	1980	1970	1960
Total, 15 years and over	22.9	22.5	22.1	17.3	29.9	29.6	28.1	23.2
Under 40 years	40.4	38.8	38.5	28.1	51.1	48.8	47.7	39.6
40 years and over	5.1	5.1	6.2	7.5	5.5	5.7	7.4	7.6
15 to 17 years	97.7	97.0	97.3	93.2	99.3	99.4	99.4	98.8
18 years	92.4	88.0	82.0	75.6	98.0	97.4	95.1	94.6
19 years	86.0	77.6	68.8	59.7	95.1	90.9	89.9	87.1
20 to 24 years	61.1	50.2	35.8	28.4	77.7	68.8	54.7	53.1
20 years	78.7	66.5	56.9	46.0	88.5	86.0	78.3	75.8
21 years	71.6	59.7	43.9	34.6	88.7	77.2	66.2	63.4
22 years	58.9	48.3	33.5	25.6	80.4	69.9	52.3	51.6
23 years	56.0	41.7	22.4	19.4	72.7	59.1	42.1	40.5
24 years	43.7	33.5	17.9	15.7	61.2	50.0	33.2	33.4
25 to 29 years	29.5	20.9	10.5	10.5	43.3	33.1	19.1	20.8
25 years	39.0	28.6	14.0	13.1	56.6	44.3	26.6	27.9
26 years	32.6	22.7	12.2	11.4	49.5	36.5	20.9	23.5
27 years	27.4	22.2	9.1	10.2	44.5	31.5	16.5	19.8
28 years	26.3	16.0	8.9	9.2	33.2	26.8	17.0	17.5
29 years	22.2	14.6	8.0	8.7	31.9	24.0	13.8	16.0
30 to 34 years	16.1	9.5	6.2	6.9	25.0	15.9	9.4	11.9
35 to 39 years	9.0	6.2	5.4	6.1	14.0	7.8	7.2	8.8
40 to 44 years	6.2	4.8	4.9	6.1	7.5	7.1	6.3	7.3
45 to 54 years	5.1	4.7	4.9	7.0	5.6	6.1	7.5	7.4
55 to 64 years	4.0	4.5	6.8	8.0	4.9	5.3	7.8	8.0
65 years and over	5.3	5.9	7.7	8.5	4.6	4.9	7.5	7.7

Figures for 1970 include persons 14 years of age.
Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1960 Census of Population, Vol.1, *U.S. Summary*, table 176.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports. Population Characteristics. Series P-20, No. 433. Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1988. Table A-1. P.59.

In 1985, 6.3 Million Americans Provided $19 Billion in Regular Support Payments To Others. In 60% Of Those Instances, Fathers Were Helping To Support Children. Most Of The Rest Were People Helping Other Adults, Primarily Parents.

Support Received Varied According to Relationship

Mean annual amount per recipient

Children under 21	$1,600
Children 21 or older	$3,755
Parents	$1,484
Spouse	$7,847
Ex-spouse	$4,665
Other relative	$1,076

In 1985, Americans gave almost $19 billion in regular support payments to persons living in other households.

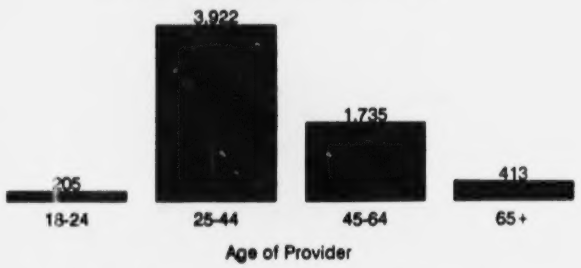
About 7 million children and 3 million adults were the recipients of these regular cash payments, which were provided mainly by relatives.

The payments included court-ordered alimony and child-support payments, regular voluntary cash payments and lump-sum payments for living expenses to persons outside the provider's household. Excluded are cash gifts, cash to pay for the educational expenses of children living temporarily away from home at school, and noncash items such as food and clothing.

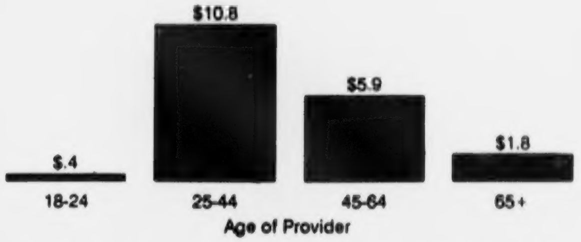
For more information, contact Martin O'Connell (301/763-5303).

Young Adults Were the Most Likely to Support Someone Outside Their Households -- Both in Number and in the Amount of Support Paid

Number of Providers (Thousands)



Aggregate Annual Amount Provided (Billions)



Source: *Who's Helping Out? Support Networks Among American Families*

The support data presented here were collected in the Survey of Income and Program Participation for the first time in 1985. We release data from this survey in reports and microdata files.

Most of the persons giving financial assistance to others were fathers supporting their children.

Among the 6.3 million Americans (3.7 percent of the population 18 and over) who provided financial assistance to others, 6 out of 10 were fathers helping to support children. Most of the rest were people helping other adults, primarily parents.

A small proportion of providers assisted spouses, ex-spouses, grown children, or others. Persons supporting spouses living elsewhere were usually separated but not yet divorced. Some, however, were supporting spouses living away from home for reasons other than marital discord, for example, in nursing homes. About 366,000 persons helped support both children and adults; most of these providers were men.

Most of the 7 million children receiving financial support from an absent parent needed help because of their parents' divorce or separation.

Altogether 4 million fathers and 324,000 mothers helped support their own children (under 21 years old) living outside their households. About 3.5 million children were getting financial help from parents who were currently separated or divorced, and another 3.2 million were helped by parents who were currently married but not living with the child they supported.

The average payment per child was $1,600 annually. Since parents helped support an average of 1.6 children each, the average amount each parent actually paid out was higher, $2,607. Parents who provided support for their children spent about 8 percent of their family income.

Eight of ten adults who received financial assistance from someone outside their households were related to their benefactors.

Most, at an earlier stage in their lives, would have been members of the same household as their provider: about one-third were parents, 7 percent were current spouses living elsewhere, and 15 percent were former spouses.

continued →

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Census and You, May 1989.

$19 Billion Dollars In Support continued

About 1 in 5 was an adult child not living in the parents' home and a similar proportion was more distantly related. Only about 5 percent of recipients were unrelated to their benefactors.

Although the average amount received by adults was $2,649, that amount varied considerably depending on the relationship to the provider. Spouses received the largest payments ($7,847), while parents received an average of $1,484 annually, and adult children received an average of $3,755.

The majority of parents receiving assistance from their children received it from their sons.

However, there was no difference in the amount of the payments made by either sons or daughters. Data from another source, the 1982 Long-Term Care Survey, showed that daughters were more likely to provide other kinds of noncash assistance to elderly disabled parents.

Most dependent parents lived in private homes (83 percent), and only 9 percent lived in nursing homes. About one-half of persons living in nursing homes who depended on others for some financial assistance were helped by their children.

However, old people often support other old people: about one-half of all dependent persons in nursing homes received support from persons who were themselves 65 years or older.

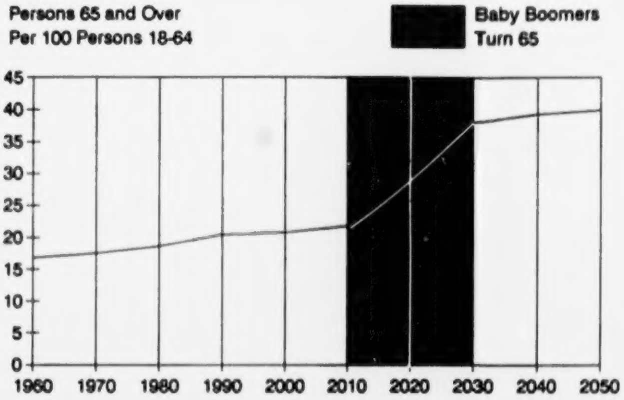
An individual's sex, age, and marital status are good predictors of their likelihood of supporting some non-household member.

By extrapolating from the survey data, we are able to determine who is most likely to provide support to others outside their households. Men and persons who have experienced marital disruption were more likely to be providers of financial assistance than were women and persons who were not currently separated or divorced -- by a 6-to-1 ratio. Young adults 25 to 44 years old were also twice as likely as persons 65 years and over to provide financial assistance to anyone.

The evidence from this survey suggests that demographic characteristics are more important predictors than are socioeconomic factors, particularly in predicting the likelihood of parents' helping children.

Socioeconomic factors do play a strong role in determining the amount of payments. In fact, a 1-percent increase in the provider's family income resulted in a 0.4-percent increase in support payments. The sex, marital status, age, education, and family income of the provider affected the size of the support payment to children. Family income was consistently found to be related to the payment level for parents and ex-spouses.

More Elderly Persons Per Adult In Years to Come



Source: Projections of the Population of the United States, by Age, Sex, and Race: 1988-2080

High rates of separation and divorce and the inevitable aging of the population will continue to place many persons in need of financial assistance.

Even if divorce rates were to decline, the number of children touched by divorce would remain substantial. At the other end of the age distribution, aging Baby Boomers will increase the elderly proportion of the population from 12 percent in 1988 to 17 percent in 2020.

For those fortunate enough to have family or friends to help out, that help may mean the difference between independence and reliance on public programs for support. For others, government programs may be the only alternative.

The source of the support statistics cited on these pages is *Who's Helping Out? Support Networks Among American Families*, Current Population Reports, Series P-70, No. 13. The report is available for $2.25 from the U.S. Government Printing Office (S/N 803-044-00001-5). The statistics shown in the graph above were taken from our latest projections report (Series P-25, No. 1018), available from the U.S. Government Printing Office for $9.50 (S/N 803-004-00026-9). *

This is one of a series of occasional reports providing timely data on specific policy-related issues. The data are subject to various errors such as undercoverage of the population, processing errors, and respondent reporting errors. Certain measures, such as quality control programs, are implemented to reduce these errors. In addition, if each of the surveys was repeated with different samples of respondents, the results would vary from sample to sample. You should use caution when comparing these data to other data sets.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.
Census and You, May 1989.

AN OVERVIEW OF REMARRIAGES AND SUBSEQUENT DIVORCES IN THE U.S.

During the 1970–83 period the annual totals of remarriages of previously divorced men and women increased by 82 percent. The estimated national number of previously divorced brides increased from 404,000 in 1970 to 736,000 in 1983. The estimated number of previously divorced grooms increased from 423,000 in 1970 to 773,000 in 1983. In the 14-year period, 8.2 million previously divorced women and 8.7 million previously divorced men remarried. In contrast, marriages of single and widowed persons declined. Currently about 1 out of 3 American brides and grooms have been married before, up from 1 out of 4 in 1970.

Analysis of marriage rates shows differences among age, sex, and marital status groups. First, divorced men and women marry at higher rates than do single or widowed men and women. Second, divorced men remarry at higher rates than divorced women at all ages 25 years and over. Finally, remarriage rates for both men and women decline with increased age. For example, 1 out of every 4 divorced men and women who were 20–24 years of age remarried during 1983. The rates for each older age group declined, faster for women than for men. By age 65 years and over, less than 3 percent of divorced men and less than half of 1 percent of divorced women remarried.

Remarriage rates for both divorced men and women declined during the 1970–83 period. Remarriage rates dropped even though the number of remarriages was increasing because the pool of divorced persons available for remarriage was increasing faster than the number of remarriages. In 1983 the remarriage rate for previously divorced women was 91.6 per 1,000, 26 percent lower than in 1970 (123.3). The remarriage rate for previously divorced men was 142.1 per 1,000 in 1983, 31 percent lower than in 1970 (204.5). Thus, only 9 percent of divorced women and 14 percent of divorced men remarried in 1983 compared with 12 percent of divorced women and 20 percent of divorced men in 1970.

Age at marriage differed distinctly for different marital status groups. In 1983 the average age of previously single brides was 23.5 years; that of previously divorced brides, 33.7 years; and of previously widowed brides, 52.6 years. Average ages of previously single, divorced, and widowed grooms were 25.5, 37.3, and 60.2 years, respectively. Thus, previously divorced brides were a decade older than single brides, and previously widowed brides were a score of years older than previously divorced brides. Ages of grooms tend to be more dispersed. Previously divorced grooms are a dozen years older than single grooms, and previously widowed grooms are nearly a quarter century older than previously divorced grooms.

Men are usually older than their brides and the age differences vary with previous marital histories. For marriages in 1983, if both bride and groom had been single, the age difference was 2.0 years. If the bride was single and the groom divorced, the difference was 6.8 years. If both bride and groom were divorced, the difference was 3.9 years. The only combinations in which the brides were typically older than their grooms were in marriages of previously divorced and widowed women to single grooms. Widowed brides were 2.1 years older and divorced brides were 0.9 year older than their single grooms.

Black brides and grooms are more likely than white brides and grooms to be marrying for the first time. In 1983 only 24 percent of black brides were previously divorced compared with 33 percent of white brides.

Whether single or divorced, black brides and grooms marry later than white brides and grooms.

The interval between marriages in 1983 was 3.6 years for brides and 3.0 years for grooms for all categories of remarriages. However, divorced persons remarry sooner than widowed persons; younger persons, whether widowed or divorced, marry sooner than older counterparts; and white men and women remarry sooner than black men and women. These relationships were the same in 1970 and 1983, but the intervals to remarriage have increased.

Educational attainment of previously divorced brides and grooms was lower than that of previously single brides and grooms, and this difference was especially pronounced for women.

The average ages of divorcing men and women are between 30 and 45 years, regardless of the number of marriages they have had. The average age of women who divorced in 1983 was 31.8 years if it was a first marriage, 37.2 years if it was a second marriage, and 41.0 years if it was a third or higher order marriage. These women had married at 21.2, 30.4, and 36.2 years of age, respectively. The average age of men who divorced in 1983 was 34.1 years if it was a first marriage, 40.5 years if it was a second marriage, and 44.6 years if it was a third or higher order marriage. Comparison of data from both the marriage and divorce files shows that divorcing men and women were younger than average when they first married.

Generally, the more times a divorcing person has been married, the shorter the duration of the marriage. Average duration for all divorcing couples in 1983 was 9.6 years, but for once-married men and women the duration was 10.8 years. In contrast, the duration for twice-married men and women was 7.0 years and for people married three times the average duration was 4.9 years for women and 5.1 years for men. Furthermore, whether the marriage was a first, second, or third marriage, duration to divorce shortened with older age at marriage.

Fewer children are involved in dissolutions of remarriages than of first marriages. On average, women ending first marriages had 1.06 children under 18 years, those ending second marriages had 0.64 children, and those ending third marriages had 0.36 children.These differences are due at least in part to the fact that most children are born into first marriages and may not be mentioned on divorce records of subsequent marriages unless custody becomes an issue. In addition, children are no longer reported once they are over 18 years of age.

Source: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. National Center for Health Statistics. Series 21, No. 45. Remarriages and Subsequent Divorces: United States. January 1989. Pp. 2 & 3.

The Tax Foundation (In Washington DC) Says:

MODERATE INCOME AMERICAN FAMILY WILL PAY TOTAL FEDERAL TAXES OF $14,068 IN FISCAL 1989

-- Fiscal Year Ends September 30 --

A moderate-income family—two workers earning $45,000 with two dependent children—faces a tax bill of $14,068 for fiscal year 1989. That covers the family's direct and indirect Federal taxes. Add to this its $2,391 "share" of the Federal deficit, and the family would contribute $16,495 to support the estimated $1.1 trillion Uncle Sam plans to spend in fiscal year 1989.

Economists at the Tax Foundation use this prototypical family to show where the average American household's Federal tax dollars will go. Assuming that the $14,068 tax bill is allocated to cover the family's entire share of Federal spending, the following expenditures stand out:

- Income security tops the list at $369.3 billion. This comprises Social Security, Federal retirement, unemployment compensation, housing assistance and nutrition assistance and will extract 31 cents for each $1 this family sends to Washington, or $4,426.
- National defense will cost $298.3 billion—or 25 cents out of each tax dollar. For the moderate-income family, this amounts to $3,573.
- Interest on the public debt ranks third at $165.7 billion, costing a family over 14 cents of its tax dollar, or a whopping $1,985.
- Health outlays, mainly Medicare and Medicaid, will take 12 cents of each tax dollar. The typical family will send Uncle Sam $1,636 to pay for the $136.5 billion national health bill.

These four programs alone will claim almost 83 percent of all Federal spending and will cost this moderate-income family $11,620, or 83 cents of each tax dollar. With the remaining 17 cents, Uncle Sam will, among other things, spend approximately 3 cents on education and less than 3 cents each on transportation, agriculture, and administration of justice.

The Family Tax Bill

Direct Federal taxes—individual income and personal social security taxes—will cost this family $8,760 in 1989. However, direct levies do not explain the whole tax picture, accounting for only about three-fifths of the total Federal tax take. To these must be added such indirect taxes as the employers' share of Social Security taxes; corporate income taxes; excise taxes on such items as gasoline, liquor and tobacco; and miscellaneous levies. These will take another $5,308 from the moderate-family's income.

Direct and indirect Federal taxes claim over 31 percent of this family's annual income, but even that does not tell the whole story. All told, current Federal taxes and borrowing add up to nearly 37 percent of the moderate-income family's earnings.

The table and chart on the next page provide further details.

continued →

Source: Tax Foundation, One Thomas Circle, NW -- Suite 500, Washington DC 20005. Tax Features, March 1989.

HOW THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT WILL SPEND A FAMILY'S TAX DOLLARS IN 1989

1.

Function	Family's Share Amount	 Percent of Total	Total Spending (Millions)
Income Security[b]	$ 4,426	31.46%	$ 369,281
National Defense	3,573	25.40	298,255
Net Interest	1,985	14.11	165,704
Health[c]	1,636	11.63	136,495
Education, Training, Employment, Social Services	436	3.10	36,351
Veterans' Benefits and Services	350	2.49	29,218
Transportation	336	2.39	28,027
Agriculture	250	1.78	20,903
Commerce and Housing Credit	241	1.71	20,040
Natural Resources and Environment	197	1.40	16,487
General Science, Space and Technology	151	1.07	12,593
International Affairs	129	0.92	10,748
General Government	120	0.85	9,990
Administration of Justice	113	0.80	9,428
Community and Regional Development	76	0.54	6,303
Energy	49	0.35	4,137
Total[d]	$ 14,068	100.00%	$ 1,137,030
Exhibit:			
Payments for Individuals	$ 6,405	45.53%	$ 534,473

[a] This example uses a two-earner family earning $45,000 per year with two dependent children.

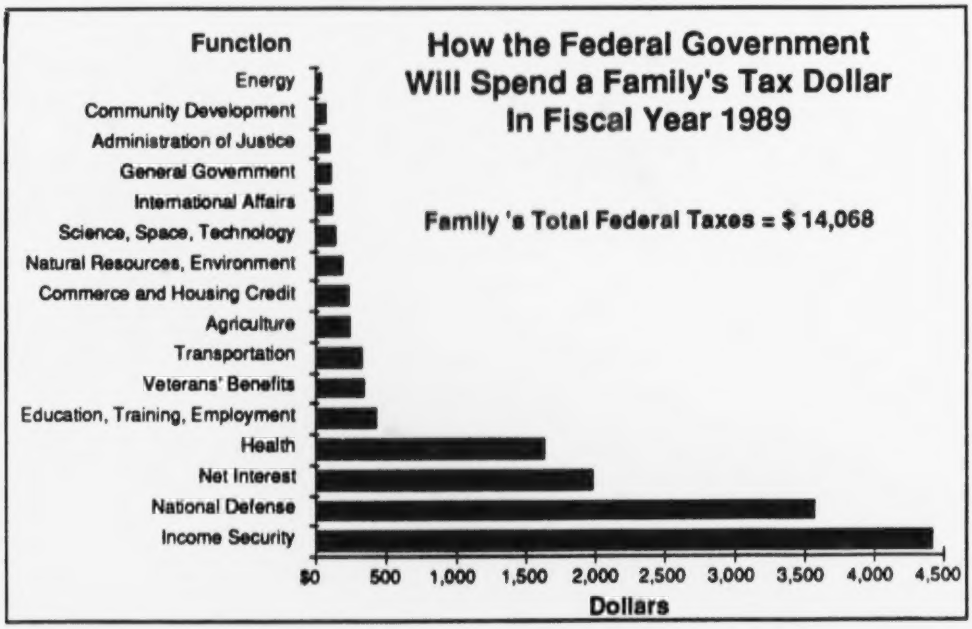
[b] Includes social security, Federal employee retirement, unemployment compensation, housing assistance, and food and nutrition assistance; excludes veteran's income security.

[c] Includes Medicare, Medicaid, and others; excludes veterans' hospital and medical care.

[d] After deducting $36,931 million in undistributed offsetting receipts not classified by function.

Source: Tax Foundation computations based on Fiscal Year 1990 U.S. Budget presented in January 1989, and tax laws for 1989 from the Treasury Department.

2.

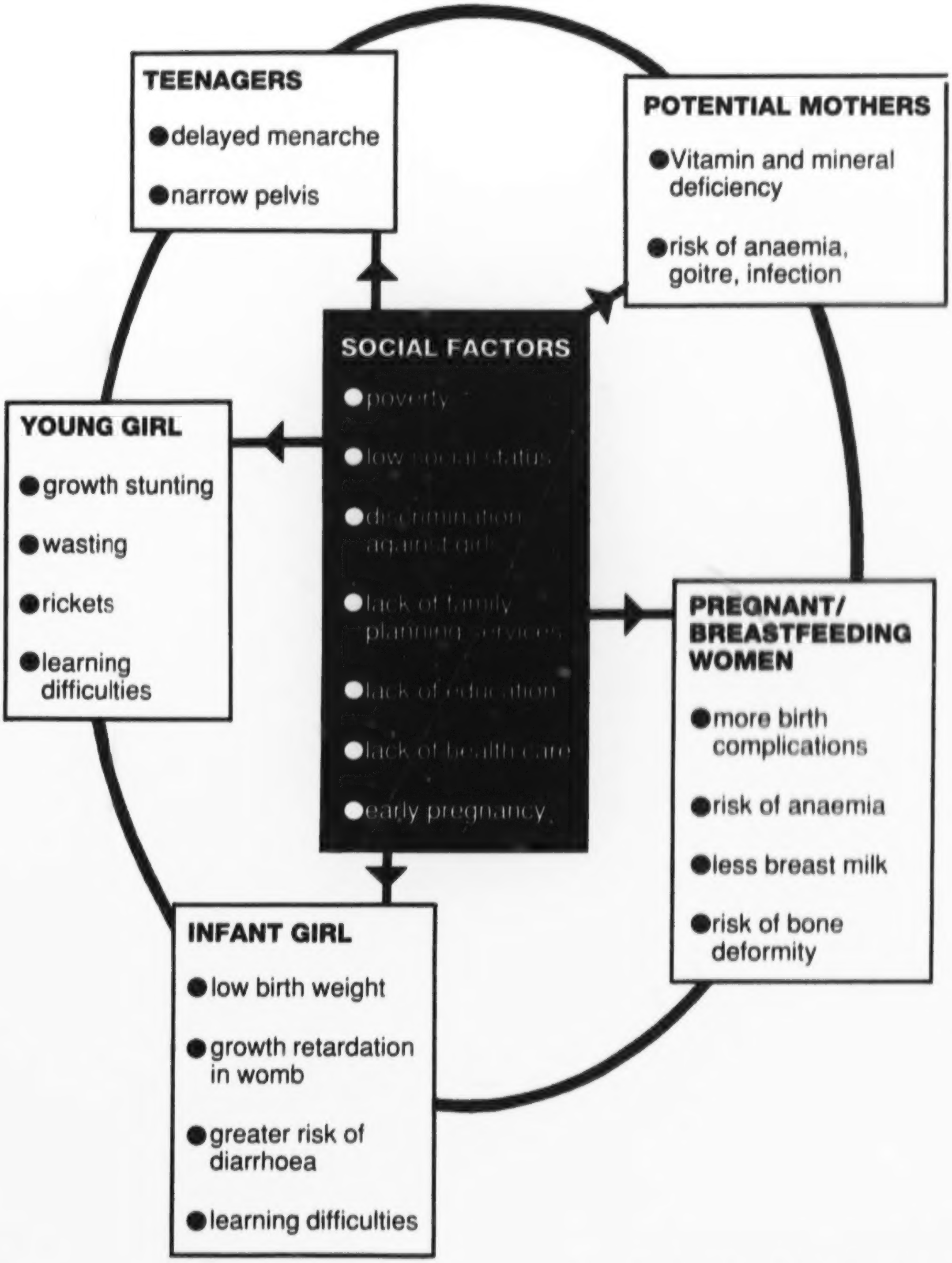


How the Federal Government Will Spend a Family's Tax Dollar In Fiscal Year 1989

Family 's Total Federal Taxes = $ 14,068

Source: Tax Foundation, One Thomas Circle, NW -- Suite 500, Washington DC 20005. Tax Features, March 1989.

THE VICIOUS CIRCLE OF MALNUTRITION



TEENAGERS

- delayed menarche
- narrow pelvis

POTENTIAL MOTHERS

- Vitamin and mineral deficiency
- risk of anaemia, goitre, infection

SOCIAL FACTORS

- poverty
- low social status
- discrimination against girls
- lack of family planning services
- lack of education
- lack of health care
- early pregnancy

YOUNG GIRL

- growth stunting
- wasting
- rickets
- learning difficulties

PREGNANT/ BREASTFEEDING WOMEN

- more birth complications
- risk of anaemia
- less breast milk
- risk of bone deformity

INFANT GIRL

- low birth weight
- growth retardation in womb
- greater risk of diarrhoea
- learning difficulties

Source: Chauliac & Masse-Raimbault and Winikoff, 1988. As cited in The State of World Population 1989, by Dr. Nafis Sadik, Executive Director of the United Nations Population Fund.

OPINION

Radcliffe College Conference Highlights Women's "Different Voice" And Its Importance In A World Where Working Together Is Key

Women and their cooperative styles of leadership may assume larger roles in global policymaking as America's competitive world stance relaxes in the face of worldwide environmental and economic problems, scholars and educators said last week.

"The global reality in which we now live calls for new forms of leadership that connect people to each other," said Jean Lipman-Blumen, professor at the Claremont Graduate School in Claremont, Calif., at the opening session of "Meeting the Challenge: Women as Leaders," the third Radcliffe Conference, held last weekend in Agassiz House.

Female leadership is, Lipman-Blumen said, "leadership that connects people to one another through their goals . . . that takes pride in the accomplishment of [colleagues] and proteges, leadership that uses mutual goals rather than traditional enemies to create group cohesion."

Lipman-Blumen joined Alfie Kohn, author of *No Contest: The Case Against Competition*, and Pam Solo, co-director of the Institute for Peace and International Security, to discuss the role of women in leadership positions.

"Women bring a different voice to the table than men," said Radcliffe President Matina Horner in her opening remarks. "The realities of women's lives have led them to develop different priorities . . . from a different voice and a different perspective."

Participants urged women to take part in the changing dynamics of global and domestic politics, stressing the need to base foreign relations on cooperation rather than the traditionally American posture of self-reliant, swashbuckling individualism.

Lipman-Blumen discussed the peculiarly American, male model of "aggressive self-reliant individualism." Women must strive instead for what she called "connective leadership . . . with goals to unite rather than separate.

"The rugged individual is the emblem of American leadership," she said. "It perhaps was appropriate to a frontier society. But that frontier society does not exist any longer.

"We should worry less about losing our competitive edge and worry more about gaining our connective edge."

Lipman-Blumen also noted "our schizoid love affair with teamwork . . . . It's no accident that baseball is our national game; it's a national metaphor." Baseball focuses on individual performance while at the same time "keeping the illusion of teamwork."

Kohn carried the metaphor further. American teamwork is "cooperating within one group in order to defeat another group . . . . That is a perverted and distorted view of actual cooperation," he said.

He warned women against what he called "pseudo-feminism," marked by "the success of women's magazines that specifically tell women to get on the fast track." In their desire to hold leadership positions, he said, women should beware of the temptation to simply take up where men have left off, assuming male techniques and making the same mistakes that men have made.

"Women have been saying, 'We want in.' I'm suggesting that from the very beginning, women should ask, 'Where is in?' " he said. "Everything men are doing is not valuable," he said, "just because men are doing it."

Solo said policymakers must move from the "cognitive regime" of the Cold War mentality to solve mutual political, economic, and environmental problems.

"The whole of the earth is threatened by its parts, and now . . . the parts must work together to save the whole." The world, she said, is in a "great state of flux."

Solo also cited the Intermediate-range Nuclear Forces (INF) treaty as "a real breakthrough . . . because it could be continued to limit further classes of nuclear arms.

The Radcliffe Conferences have been funded by a grant from the Charles H. Revson Foundation. The first conference, held last December, discussed "Defining the Challenge: "Emerging Needs and Constraints." The second, held in March, examined "Restructuring Reality: An In-Depth Look at Selected Issues."

She attributed much of the change to Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev, who has "changed the face of international politics." The result is "the beginning of the end of the traditional standoff between capitalism and socialism . . . . We are teetering on the edge of changes, but constraints still dominate."

Solo described "common security," a pattern for foreign policy based on the "idea that no nation can be secure at the expense of others."

"Our role is to shape thinking . . . to give politics goals," she said. "We are, I think, experiencing a paradigmatic shift. The grounds of discussion, the parameters of discussion, are dramatically changing."

The conference also featured discussions on "Women Advocating for Women," "Powerful Women in Context," and "Is Women's Impact Free of Context?" ✱

Source: Harvard University Gazette, May 19, 1989. P.1.

THE SHARE OF GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT TAKEN BY TAXES AND SOCIAL SECURITY CONTRIBUTIONS: 18 COUNTRIES, YEARS 1976 AND 1986

Britain, together with most other industrialised countries, experienced a rise between 1976 and 1986 in the share of gross national product taken by taxes and social security contributions – from 39 per cent to 44 per cent. Corporate taxes have grown in relative importance with the development of the oil sector. The share of indirect taxes increased substantially between 1976 and 1981 but was no higher by 1986.

The January 1989 issue of *Economic Trends*[1] contains an article on international comparisons of taxes and social security contributions in 18 member countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development from 1976 to 1986 (although complete data are not available for all countries).

Taxes and Social Security Contributions in Relation to National and Domestic Product

Taxes and social security contributions accounted for 44 per cent of Britain's gross national product (GNP) at factor cost in 1986, placing Britain ninth out of 18 countries (see Table 1). The percentages had increased in all but one of the countries since 1976, when Britain's figure of 39 per cent had put it in tenth position.

Taxes alone comprised 36 per cent of Britain's GNP in 1986 (see Table 2), placing Britain in sixth position out of the same 18 countries. In common with most of the other countries, Britain had had a lower proportion in 1976 (32 per cent), when it had also occupied sixth position.

For 13 countries, estimates for 1986 and preliminary estimates for 1987 are given for taxes and social security contributions as a percentage of gross domestic product at market prices. Britain occupied eighth place in both years, with 39 per cent in 1986 and 38 per cent in 1987.

Composition of Taxes and Social Security Contributions

The article looks at variations between 1976 and 1986 in the relative importance of various taxes by considering their changing share of total taxes and social security contributions.

Nearly half the countries experienced a fall in direct taxes on households as a percentage of total taxes and social security contributions. In Britain the decline was particularly sharp, the share falling from 39 per cent in 1976 to 30 per cent in 1981 (which reflects the shift from direct to indirect taxation in the 1979 Budget – see p 193, 1979) and to 28 per cent in 1986.

Definition of Factor Cost

The costs of the FACTORS OF PRODUCTION used in making a commodity, that is, the wages and fringe benefits paid to labor, rent paid on property, profits paid to the entrepreneur, and materials costs. Factor cost does not include indirect costs, such as depreciation on the machinery used, or excise or sales taxes. Calculating factor cost can be useful in assessing how various industries within an economy absorb the available factors of production.

Dictionary of Business and Economics by Ammer & Ammer. ©1977. The Free Press.

Britain was the only country in which the share of direct taxes on corporate income rose sharply; this was largely because of the growing importance of taxes on profits from North Sea oil: the figure increased from 5 per cent in 1976 to 11 per cent in 1986.

The share of indirect taxes rose in about half of the countries. In Britain it increased from 36 per cent in 1976 to 43 per cent in 1981 (reflecting the measures in the 1979 Budget) and was at the same level in 1986.

The proportion taken up by the social security contributions increased in most of the countries. In Britain, however, the figure declined slightly from 19 per cent in 1976 to 18 per cent in 1986.

Direct Taxes on Households and Social Security Contributions in Relation to Total Personal Income

In 1976 direct taxes on households and employees' social security contributions accounted for 20 per cent of total personal income in Britain (direct taxes 16 per cent and social security contributions 3 per cent), placing it fifth out of 11 countries (see Table 3). By 1986 the figure had fallen to 17 per cent (direct taxes 13 per cent and social security contributions 4 per cent), and Britain's position was eighth.

continued ↗

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[1] Central Statistical Office. HMSO, £9·25. ISBN 0 11 620353 6.

Source: Survey of Current Affairs, March 1989. Prepared by Reference Services, Central Office of Information, London. Issued by British Information Services, New York.

TAXES AND SOCIAL SECURITY CONTRIBUTIONS continued

Table 1

Taxes and Social Security Contributions as a Percentage of GNP at Factor Cost

	1976		1986	
	Percentage	Rank	Percentage	Rank
Denmark	48	4	63	1
Sweden	54	2	62	2
Norway	56	1	57	3
France	44	8	51	4
Netherlands	48	3	50	5
Austria	45	6	50	6
Belgium	45	7	49	7
Federal Republic of Germany	46	5	45	8
Britain	39	10	44	9
Finland	42	9	44	10
Greece	30	15	41	11
Canada	36	11	39	12
Italy	28	16	38	13
Australia	32	13	37	14
Spain	23	16	35	15
Switzerland	32	12	33	16
United States	30	14	31	17
Japan	23	15	31	18

Table 2

Taxes as a Percentage of GNP at Factor Cost

	1976		1986	
	Percentage	Rank	Percentage	Rank
Denmark	48	1	61	1
Sweden	42	2	46	2
Norway	41	3	41	3
Finland	35	4	38	4
Australia	32	8	37	5
Britain	32	6	36	6
Austria	33	5	36	7
Belgium	31	9	33	8
Canada	32	7	33	9
France	27	12	29	10
Netherlands	30	10	29	11
Greece	22	15	28	12
Federal Republic of Germany	29	11	27	13
Italy	16	17	25	14
United States	24	13	23	15
Switzerland	23	14	23	16
Spain	12	18	22	17
Japan	17	16	22	18

Source: Survey of Current Affairs, March 1989. Prepared by Reference Services, Central Office of Information, London. Issued by British Information Services, New York.

PROFILES

Student Rights

- The **Kansas** state legislature has passed a law broadening free speech rights of high school journalists. The new law bars school officials from censoring articles because they do not like their treatment of political or controversial topics.

- In April **New York** State Commissioner of Education Thomas Sobel ordered a banned high school magazine to be distributed and asked school officials around the state to give students broader protections than those established by the Supreme Court in *Hazelwood v. Kuhlmeier*. Commissioner Sobel had been asked to intervene when the superintendent of the Northport Union Free School District blocked the release of an arts magazine because he objected to the "vulgarity" of a story it contained.

- In August 1988 a federal district judge ruled that the century-old dancing ban maintained by the **Purdy, Missouri** school board violated the Establishment clause of the First Amendment since it was maintained on religious grounds. Accordingly the ban was lifted and a dance was held - and now the school board is appealing to the Eighth Circuit Court of Appeals to have it reinstated.

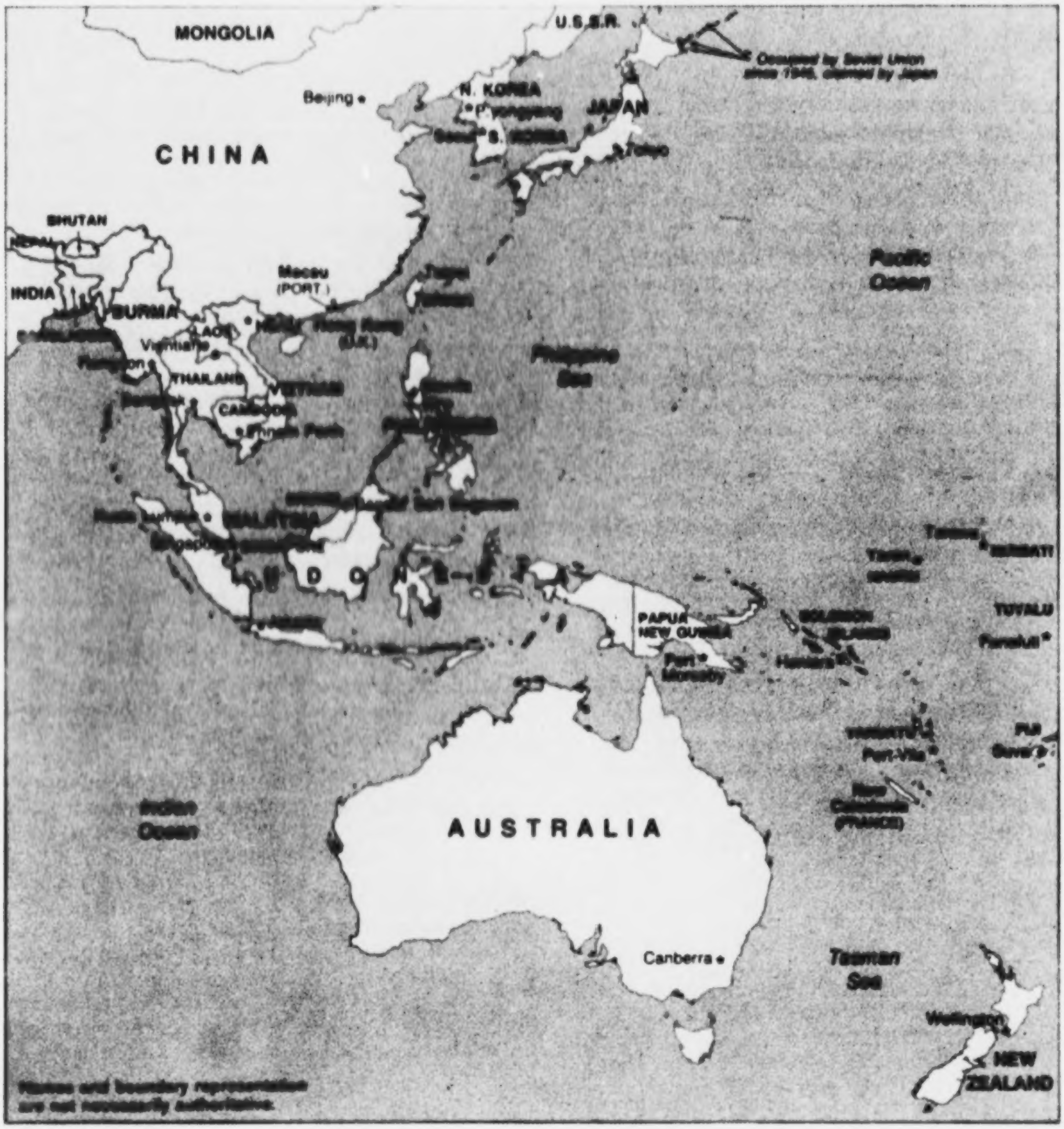
- Three elementary school students in **Knoxville, Tennessee** were forced to undergo a strip search by a substitute teacher looking for missing money. If a suit is brought it may call into question the constitutionality of a Tennessee law which gives school officials the power to strip-search students.

- A case has recently been filed against the principal of Meridian High School in **Sanford, Michigan** involving two separate search incidents. In one incident over a dozen male students were strip-searched by the principal after a reported theft. In the other, he conducted a pat down search of female students in a bus, seeking a can of hair mousse. Nothing was found in either instance.

- The US Supreme Court has refused to review lower court decisions which let stand a **Texas** law allowing school officials to use any amount of corporal punishment as long as they stop short of "deadly force." The case of *Cunningham v. Beavers* arose when two kindergarten girls were paddled so severely for "snickering in the hall" that they had to miss six days of class.

Source: Bill of Rights Network, Spring 1989. The Bill of Rights Network is the newsletter of the **Bill of Rights Education Project**, a statewide educational initiative undertaken by the Massachusetts Civil Liberties Union Foundation in cooperation with the Massachusetts Department of Education and the Massachusetts Bar Association.

EAST ASIA AND THE PACIFIC


MONGOLIA
U.S.S.R.
Occupied by Soviet Union since 1945, claimed by Japan
Beijing
N. KOREA
Pyongyang
Seoul
S. KOREA
JAPAN
Tokyo
CHINA
BHUTAN
NEPAL
INDIA
Macau (PORT.)
Taipei
Taiwan
Hong Kong (U.K.)
BURMA
LAOS
Hanoi
Vientiane
Rangoon
THAILAND
Bangkok
VIETNAM
CAMBODIA
Phnom Penh
Manila
Philippine Sea
Pacific Ocean
Kuala Lumpur
MALAYSIA
Bandar Seri Begawan
Singapore
INDONESIA
PAPUA NEW GUINEA
Port Moresby
SOLOMON ISLANDS
Honiara
KIRIBATI
TUVALU
Funafuti
VANUATU
Port-Vila
FIJI
Suva
New Caledonia (FRANCE)
Indian Ocean
AUSTRALIA
Canberra
Tasman Sea
Wellington
NEW ZEALAND
Names and boundary representation are not necessarily authoritative.

0243 1-89 STATE (INR/GE)

Source: U.S. Department of State. Bureau of Public Affairs. January 1989.

World Eagle
64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

EXCERPTS FROM AN INTERNATIONAL SYMPOSIUM ON PRODUCTIVITY AND EMPLOYMENT

The following text and two graphs are reprinted from a 79-page report issued in 1989 of a symposium held in Washington, DC, April 10-13, 1988. See full Source printed below.

PREFACE

For three days in April 1988, 600 participants from 28 countries convened in Washington, D.C., to explore ways to improve productivity and expand employment opportunities. This report highlights key issues presented at the International Productivity Symposium III.

While the participants represented three diverse areas—North America, Europe, and Asia, each with its own set of economic problems and solutions—the conference brought forth a universal interest in developing viable strategies for increasing productivity and employment.

The Washington symposium follows a noble tradition begun in Tokyo in 1983 and continued in Munich in 1986. By bringing together leaders from government, industry, and trade unions from around the world, these meetings encourage the exchange of ideas and experiences to meet the challenges of a changing global marketplace.

Ann McLaughlin, Secretary of the United States Department of Labor, captured the general spirit of the discussion with the premises she set forth in her keynote speech:

- "The quality of the workforce is the deciding factor in a nation's ability to produce and prosper."

  Labor's skills, education, adaptability, and freedom from work/family conflicts are critical. "Machinery and technology alone don't improve productivity. People do."

- "Technology is only as good as the people who use it."

  "As a worker in an automated steel rolling mill in Lorraine, Ohio, put it, 'You have to think more about the job you're doing. In the old mills the job got so you didn't have to think; no mental effort. But this job is very touchy. You have to watch all the time. . . . Even when the mill is turned on automatic, you have to think all the time.'"

  Future jobs will require better reading, writing, mathematical, and reasoning skills. More than half the new jobs in the next 10 years will require education beyond high school.

- Improvements in productivity depend on workers' having a stake in the outcome. Only 9 percent of American workers feel they would benefit if their companies increased productivity, compared to 93 percent of Japanese workers. Managers often blame labor for problems.

  "Workers are not part of the problem. They're the source of the solution. Nobody knows more about a job and how to improve it than the person who's doing it."

- Increasing productivity does not mean cutting jobs. The economy is not static. Greater productivity expands markets and increases jobs.

- Lasting improvements in productivity require accommodating the demands of family life.

  Women in their childbearing years will form the majority of the new entrants into the labor force over the next decade.

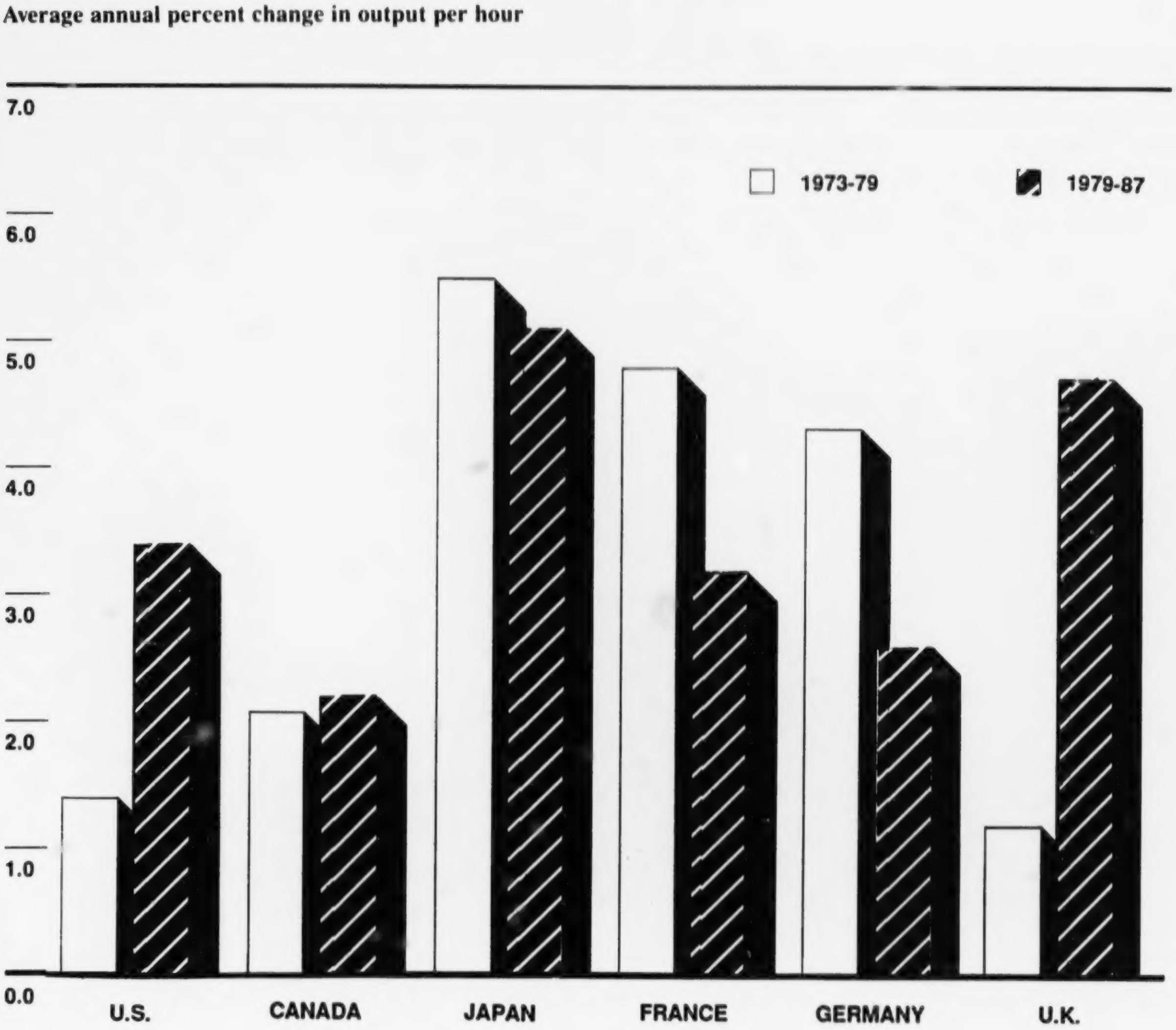
The symposium itself was a model of cooperative effort. The Department of Labor was proud to join the 16 national and international cosponsors that hosted this event. The broad spectrum of the participating organizations attests to the conviction that productivity and employment are increasingly global concerns which cut across national boundaries.

As this report makes clear, IPS III brought forth many common concerns and provided new insights into creating a better workplace. We hope that the issues presented in this report will help to advance the growing pool of knowledge that stimulates world economic growth and our own, as well as serve as a springboard for the next International Productivity Symposium in 1990.

John R. Stepp
Deputy Under Secretary for Labor-Management
Relations and Cooperative Programs
Washington, D.C.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor-Management Relations and Cooperative Programs. Productivity & Employment: Challenges for the 1990s. The Preface page.

MANUFACTURING PRODUCTIVITY IN 1979-1987 IN SIX INDUSTRIALIZED COUNTRIES



Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor-Management Relations and Cooperative Programs. Productivity & Employment: Challenges for the 1990s. Page 2.

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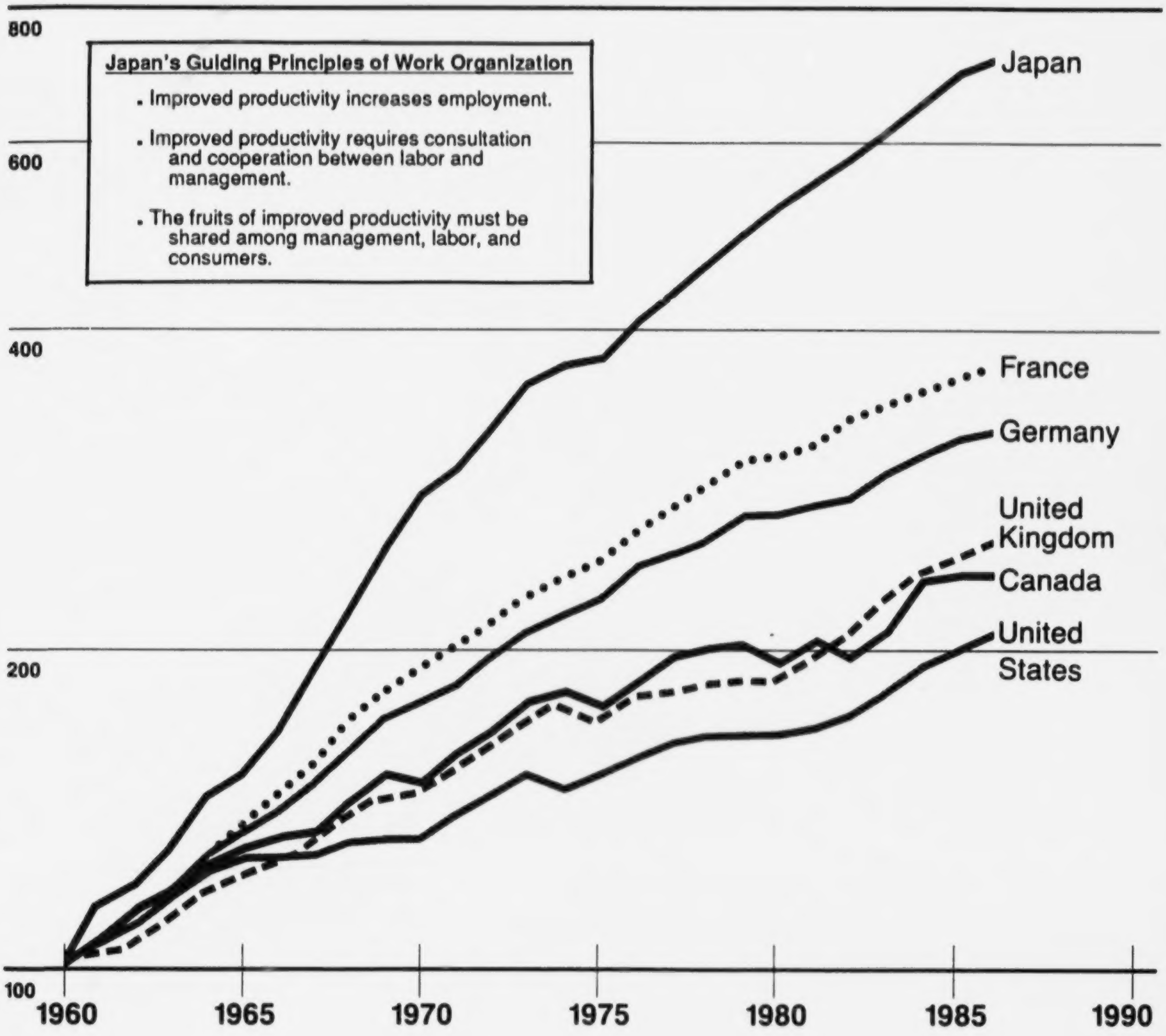
LONG-TERM TRENDS IN MANAUFACTURING PRODUCTIVITY

Output per employee hour in manufacturing, selected countries, 1960 - 1986

Index, 1960 = 100

Ratio scale



Japan's Guiding Principles of Work Organization

- Improved productivity increases employment.
- Improved productivity requires consultation and cooperation between labor and management.
- The fruits of improved productivity must be shared among management, labor, and consumers.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor-Management Relations and Cooperative Programs. Productivity & Employment: Challenges for the 1990s. Pp. 13 and 19.

World Eagle
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OPINION

"Schools May be Pathological Environments"

'CAREGIVING CRISIS' CALLED U.S. SCHOOLS' GREATEST CHALLENGE

The following article by Cynthia Patrick is reprinted from The Stanford University Campus Report, April 19, 1989.

In their concern about what and how much today's children are learning, education Prof. Nel Noddings says today's schools are overlooking one overwhelming aspect of adult preparation: Most schoolchildren will face the greatest challenges of their lives as caregivers.

"It's frightening how fast the need for caregiving is growing," she said, pointing to the dramatic number of elderly citizens, children, the handicapped and infants "who need care in forms that are not even known yet."

Pointing to the universality of the human need for caring parents and capable caregivers, she said that "the various crises — in math education, in science education — are very tiny when held against this other."

"We've given very, very little attention to this crying need. There is nothing in schools to prepare children to accept the need for caring — either as individuals or as a society."

Noddings spoke at the American Educational Research Association (AERA) convention in San Francisco. Her remarks on the subject of "The Challenge to Care in Schools," delivered informally without notes, were part of a "fireside chat."

Dropouts claim: "No one cares"

Noddings pointed not only to the frequency of caregiving in our society but also to the intensity and the magnitude of the changes it can wreak on an individual life. For example, according to Noddings, among the 75 percent of the caregivers for the elderly or the handicapped who are women, "many are living in poverty for the first time in their lives."

These women, she said, have been subjected to "catastrophe" through illness or accident. "To get help from social agencies, you have to go through all your own financial and social resources first." These women tend to lose everything but their homes, she added — ironically, even including the means to pay taxes on their homes.

She noted that society, approaching these cases from a standpoint of ethics and rights, does its utmost to save lives. "But for the families, after the first emergency is over, you go home, and society washes its hands of the responsibility. Many have given up everything in the category of right to liberty and happiness to take care of these people."

'Kids can be cruel if the teacher does not work to legitimate a sympathetic, tender environment'

She also noted the growing number of children with handicaps — some with AIDS or alcoholic and health-debilitated mothers who lacked prenatal care. "We have 40,000 cocaine babies now, and that number is growing. They have something called 'a response deficit' and we have no idea how to deal with that," she said.

At the same time, she noted, we have a nursing shortage and an unmet demand for trained child care workers.

"At the school level, how do we prepare for this? What has to change in structure, pedagogy, curriculum so that these needs will be given the weight they ought to have?"

Noddings refuted the notion that all people have a natural, inborn ability to love: "Evidence is beginning to show that not all people do have the capacity to care," she said. "Some research shows it may be a function of being cared *for*, and many children feel they aren't." She noted some research that found the single greatest complaint of high school dropouts was that "no one seemed to care" about how they were doing.

She said that the dropouts' perception of indifference occurred despite schools and teachers who say that they *do* care. One possibility, she said, is that schools currently are not a good medium for transmitting care. "Schools *may* be pathological environments."

The need for "decent, caring, loving people"

In defense of making "caring" a high priority for the school environment, Noddings, a former secondary math teacher, engaged in a hypothetical Socratic dialogue: "If you *had* to choose between having your child be a good reader and having the child be a decent, caring, loving person — which would you pick?" she asked.

"Usually, people try to get out of that — and who wouldn't? — but eventually they opt for having their children be loving people, and then add, 'But we don't have to choose.'

"Then I say, 'True. We don't. But doesn't that reveal something about what our real priorities are?' And they say, 'Yeah, it does, but families should take care of that priority.'

"But initially, the fundamental purpose of school was a *moral* one — to teach children to be good people. Learning to read came second," she said. As an example, she pointed out that in the McGuffey Readers, a staple of 19th- and early 20th-century education, the stories were all oriented toward a moral lesson — reading was merely viewed as a means to teach these homilies.

During the early decades of this century, she noted, schools took on the more general purpose of imbuing immigrant families with American mores and ideals — an attitude that Noddings finds "arrogant," especially when it implied that foreign families couldn't rear their children well.

"Schools weren't founded for academic reasons — that's a very recent twist," she said.

She also refuted the commonplace pop psychology wisdom that to love and respect others, you must first love and respect yourself. "There's that old Christian adage that you must lose yourself to find yourself — we don't talk that way anymore."

She pointed to the efficacy of cross-age tutoring in some schools to inspire and motivate the teenage student-tutors as an example of students learning to respect themselves through helping others.

"For tough teenagers about to drop out, tutoring third-

continued ⟶

'CAREGIVING CRISIS' continued

and fourth-grade children often becomes their reason for going to school each day," she said.

Noddings also refuted those who fear adding to the already overburdened demands on curriculum: "You're not *adding* something; you're looking at a very fundamental way of doing things, something that will transform everything else we do." At present, she said, the teachers' ability to care is not reflected in how they are evaluated; nor is how well their students work together part of their official "responsibility."

She lauded the description of a caring classroom given by one Midwestern participant at the AERA chat: A child with epilepsy was initially ostracized by his classmates. The teacher explained to the epileptic boy, "They're not afraid of you, they're afraid of your seizures. They're afraid you are getting hurt."

The teacher worked with the children to help them understand and include the boy in their activities. She knew she had triumphed when, one day, a child approached her and said, "Joey is having a seizure. Do you think I should snuggle him in the beanbag chair and give him a blanket? He's having a bad day."

"Trojan Horse" tactics

Noddings warned against attempts to "institutionalize" caring: "I'm not falling into the trap of thinking institutions can care. But institutions can provide a climate in which caring can flourish."

Too often, however, educators do not try to revamp policies and attitudes, but merely try to institute different classroom techniques. For example, she said that small group learning, "currently a fad in education," will not necessarily foster a more compassionate learning environment.

"Kids can be cruel if the teacher does not work to legitimate a sympathetic, tender environment. If you throw kids together in small groups only for classroom problem-solving, they tend to castigate a member for giving a wrong answer — as in 'You dummy, I *knew* that was the wrong answer' — or they may even kick each other. I've seen these teaching methods lead to a lot of intergroup competition."

She noted that other moves to institutionalize a more supportive, more caring environment have resulted in attempts to "quantify" caring — for example, through teacher evaluations that ask "How many times was approval given in class?" During talks she has had with teachers, she said, they frequently outline a scenario and ask "Was I caring in that situation?"

"The emphasis is no longer on caring, but rather on the justification for moral decisions. We ought not to expect a recipe," she said. How much we care is reflected minute-to-minute in school policies, arbitrary classroom rules and teachers' readymade responses to their violation, she said.

"Why would we want to put kids' names on the blackboard, and put a check next to the name with each infraction? The answer might be that we don't want to interrupt everyone's lesson each time a kid decides to throw something.

"The next question is: Is this social studies lesson the most important thing that is happening in this room? If the teacher says 'Yes,' then you can say, 'But you are causing pain.' Some teachers say, 'So what?' and that sends chills down my spine. If, however, you can get teachers to admit that we are teaching social studies so that students can learn to live with each other, then you might be able to make a point."

She admitted that there is a tremendous tendency to "marginalize" issues about caring, to treat them as the soft, side issues of education. Some participants in Noddings' group decried the "Trojan Horse" tactics that are sometimes used to get these issues into schools — for example, the findings that classroom "caring" will boost test scores. These strategies, many said, tended to distort and subvert the very values they tried to introduce.

Noting the frequent resistance to norms and attitudes that can be perceived as "feminine" or "maternal," Noddings said: "The maternal approach is allowed up to the age of about 7. We want women who are willing to put on kids' galoshes, wipe noses and deal with bathroom accidents. After 7, children are supposed to learn the names and games of the fathers. There is something massive operating here."

The long contest

Noddings, whose training is in philosophy, noted that American culture is very much rooted in the Greek notion of the "agon," or what she calls "the long tradition of life as a contest."

"As a culture, we value vanquishing. If not by sword or battle, then we vanquish economically or academically."

She commented on a *Wall Street Journal* article that described "the top 20 schools."

"My question is: How the heck do you pick the top 20?" she asked.

"We constantly talk about being Number 1. We have to start thinking about how other nations must feel when they hear us talk like that. Are you nobody because you live in France?

> "We constantly talk about being Number 1 . . . Are you nobody because you live in France?"

"At Stanford, we're up to our eyeballs in that kind of thing," she said. "We even advertise our students' GREs.

"In reports and task forces, we have worried about poor performance in math and science, we have worried that we won't be able to compete, that we won't be 'Number One.' Other things may be far more important than kids not knowing the quadratic formula. I taught mathematics at the secondary level, so I suppose I should be concerned that kids don't know what a 'function' is. But all you have to do is cross fields to find out how funny all this is, how many educated people don't know these things."

Far more important, she said, is our society's ability to provide a supportive environment for its young, and a compassionate environment for the growing number of disabled and at-risk populations. *

U.S. TRADE FACTS

The United States is the world's largest economy, the largest market, the leading importer and, together with West Germany and Japan, leads the world in exports. In 1988, U.S. exports contributed 41.2 percent of real U.S. GNP growth.

Merchandise Exports

- U.S. two-way trade totaled $763.4 billion in 1988, with exports of $321.8 billion and imports of $441.6 billion.
- The 1988 U.S. trade deficit shrank from the 1987 peak by 21 percent to $119.8 billion with imports valued on a customs basis—that is, without adding the cost of international insurance and freight.
- The United States exported 5.4 percent of its gross national product in 1988—after a peak of 8.1 percent in 1980 and a decline to 5.1 percent in 1986. In 1987, West Germany exported 25.9 percent, Canada 25.1 percent, the United Kingdom 19.3 percent, and Japan 10.5 percent.
- In 1988, the United States accounted for 11.3 percent of the world's exports and 15.6 percent of the world's imports.
- In 1988, total U.S. merchandise exports were comprised of 79 percent manufactured goods, 12 percent agricultural commodities, and 9 percent primarily mineral fuels and crude materials.
- Total U.S. merchandise imports in 1988 were comprised of 82 percent manufactured goods, 9 percent mineral fuels, and 9 percent agricultural commodities and other goods.
- On average about 22,800 (revised) U.S. jobs resulted per $1 billion of U.S. merchandise exports in 1987.
- Merchandise exports accounted for about 5.6 million jobs in the United States in 1987.
- About one in six U.S. jobs in manufacturing was due to exports in 1987.
- From 1891 through 1970, the United States had an unbroken string of trade surpluses. After 1970, it had deficits in every year except 1973 and 1975.
- Canada was by far the United States' leading foreign market for exports in 1988, followed by Japan, Mexico, the United Kingdom, and West Germany. Japan was the United States' leading import supplier, followed closely by Canada, and then by West Germany, Taiwan, Mexico, and the United Kingdom.
- The capital goods sector, including aircraft, leads U.S. exports, followed by industrial supplies and materials, then foods, feeds, and beverages, automotive products, and other consumer products.
- The Commerce Department estimates that about 2,000 U.S. companies account for more than 70 percent of U.S. manufactures exports.

Business Service Exports

- Exports of U.S. business services are one-fifth as large as U.S. exports of goods.
- Exports and imports of business services totaled nearly $69 billion and $61 billion, respectively, in 1988.
- In 1988, U.S. exports of business services accounted for nearly 1.5 percent of U.S. gross national product. Travel service receipts and related passenger fares accounted for one-third of that total.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Business America, May 22, 1989. P. 12.

DEATH RATES BY SELECTED CAUSES - SELECTED COUNTRIES

[**Age-standardized death rate per 100,000 population.** For explanation of age-adjustment, see text, section 2. The standard population for this table is the European standard; see source for details. Deaths classified according to ninth revision of *International Classification of Diseases;* see text, section 2]

COUNTRY	Year	Ischemic heart disease	Cerebrovascular disease	MALIGNANT NEOPLASM OF—			Bronchitis,[2] emphysema, asthma	Chronic liver disease and cirrhosis	Motor vehicle traffic accidents	Suicide
				Lung, trachea, bronchus	Stomach	Female breast [1]				
United States	1984	218.1	60.1	52.7	6.0	31.9	8.3	12.9	18.1	12.4
Australia	1985	230.9	95.6	41.0	10.1	30.0	16.9	8.7	17.9	11.8
Austria	1986	155.1	133.2	34.3	20.7	31.6	22.3	26.6	17.3	26.7
Belgium	1984	120.6	95.0	55.9	14.7	36.8	22.6	12.4	18.7	22.7
Bulgaria	1985	245.9	254.5	30.6	24.2	21.5	28.6	16.2	12.0	15.6
Canada	1985	200.6	57.5	50.6	9.0	34.5	9.7	10.1	15.3	12.8
Czechoslovakia	1985	289.4	194.3	51.3	22.4	27.3	33.8	19.6	10.9	19.6
Denmark	1985	243.8	73.4	52.2	10.9	39.7	37.1	12.2	14.0	26.9
Finland	1986	259.8	105.0	36.4	17.3	23.9	19.8	8.8	11.9	26.3
France	1985	76.0	79.7	32.2	10.8	27.1	11.7	22.9	17.3	21.8
Hungary	1986	240.1	186.5	55.0	25.9	31.2	43.8	42.1	15.7	44.1
Italy	1983	128.9	121.9	42.1	23.9	28.9	30.9	31.5	16.6	7.3
Japan	1986	41.9	112.8	24.9	40.7	8.1	12.2	14.4	10.1	21.1
Netherlands	1985	164.6	71.1	56.3	15.6	38.2	17.8	5.5	9.2	11.2
New Zealand	1985	250.5	98.4	42.0	11.2	37.7	25.8	4.8	20.9	10.8
Norway	1985	208.5	88.6	26.3	14.4	25.9	18.2	6.9	9.7	14.2
Poland	1986	109.4	75.3	47.2	24.2	21.1	33.4	12.0	14.3	13.8
Portugal	1986	76.6	216.4	18.7	26.5	22.6	17.8	30.0	24.4	9.4
Spain	1981	79.0	133.9	26.0	19.7	19.0	19.1	23.3	15.4	4.8
Sweden	1985	244.7	73.0	23.2	12.5	26.0	14.3	6.4	9.2	17.2
Switzerland	1986	112.0	65.6	36.6	12.0	36.6	17.5	10.4	14.8	21.4
United Kingdom:										
England and Wales	1985	247.6	104.5	57.2	15.2	41.9	24.2	4.8	8.8	8.6
Scotland	1986	288.0	128.4	68.7	14.9	41.2	14.8	7.3	11.1	10.9
West Germany	1986	159.5	100.4	34.6	18.3	32.6	26.1	19.3	12.5	17.0

[1] Data for female population only. [2] Chronic and unspecified.

Source: World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland, *World Health Statistics*, annual.

SUICIDE RATES FOR SELECTED COUNTRIES, GROUP BY SEX AND AGE

[**Rate per 100,000 population.** Includes deaths resulting indirectly from self-inflicted injuries. Except as noted, deaths classified according to the ninth revision of the *International Classification of Diseases* (I.C.D.); see text, section 2]

SEX AND AGE	United States, 1984	Australia, 1985	Austria, 1986	Canada, 1985	Denmark,[1] 1985	France, 1985	Italy, 1983	Japan, 1986	Netherlands, 1985	Poland, 1986	Sweden,[1] 1985	United Kingdom,[2] 1985	West Germany, 1986
MALE													
Total [3]	**19.7**	**18.2**	**42.1**	**20.5**	**35.1**	**33.1**	**11.0**	**27.8**	**14.6**	**22.0**	**25.0**	**12.1**	**26.6**
15–24 yrs. old	20.5	24.0	31.0	25.2	17.0	17.0	5.2	14.1	10.6	17.5	14.3	8.2	17.7
25–34 yrs. old	24.9	26.6	48.6	27.0	38.7	35.2	8.4	25.1	17.6	29.3	32.0	16.3	25.3
35–44 yrs. old	22.6	22.5	53.3	24.7	38.5	36.5	9.1	31.6	16.1	33.5	29.0	16.3	28.5
45–54 yrs. old	23.7	21.5	54.2	26.4	56.6	45.4	14.8	51.0	20.0	36.7	39.3	17.1	35.6
55–64 yrs. old	27.2	22.0	52.5	26.5	55.3	48.0	18.4	44.8	21.0	35.9	32.7	18.1	36.7
65–74 yrs. old	33.5	24.8	72.8	28.5	57.7	61.4	29.7	43.9	26.1	30.6	36.2	16.9	44.7
75 yrs. old and over	49.1	27.4	106.5	28.4	83.4	120.5	47.9	78.8	41.0	29.3	45.3	22.3	72.8
FEMALE													
Total [3]	**5.4**	**5.1**	**15.8**	**5.4**	**20.6**	**12.7**	**4.3**	**14.9**	**8.1**	**4.4**	**11.5**	**5.7**	**12.0**
15–24 yrs. old	4.4	4.9	9.7	4.0	8.1	4.7	1.3	8.0	3.1	2.7	7.6	1.8	5.3
25–34 yrs. old	6.1	4.7	14.3	6.6	14.3	10.6	3.3	11.6	9.3	5.3	13.2	4.4	9.1
35–44 yrs. old	7.7	6.1	18.5	8.0	28.6	14.6	3.7	12.8	9.9	5.8	15.5	5.4	10.5
45–54 yrs. old	9.2	8.7	20.2	9.0	34.0	17.7	5.8	18.4	12.5	8.4	14.8	9.2	14.8
55–64 yrs. old	8.5	8.3	18.9	8.0	41.5	20.8	8.3	20.2	14.6	7.6	13.8	10.5	16.5
65–74 yrs. old	7.3	7.6	29.0	7.8	34.1	26.8	10.1	33.0	15.5	6.6	20.1	11.9	23.6
75 yrs. old and over	6.0	9.7	31.5	5.3	24.6	27.5	11.0	59.1	10.8	5.5	14.0	10.1	24.8

[1] Based on the eighth revison of the I.C.D. [2] England and Wales only. [3] Includes other age groups not shown separately.

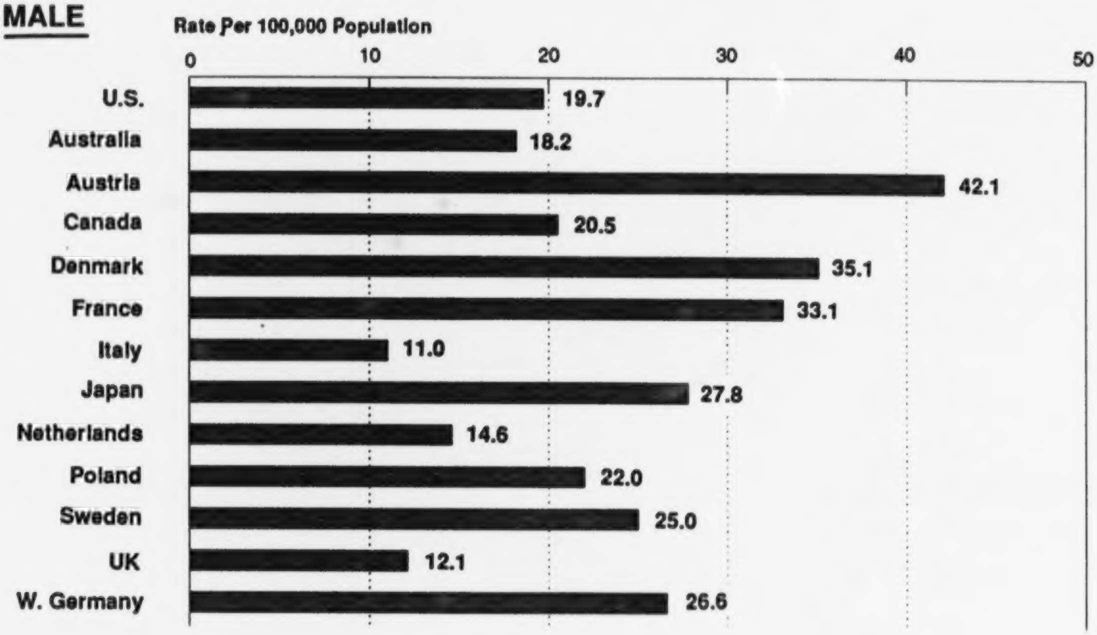
Source: World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland, *World Health Statistics*, annual; and unpublished data.

Source: 1989 Statistical Abstract of the United States.
Tables 1407 and 1408. P. 820.

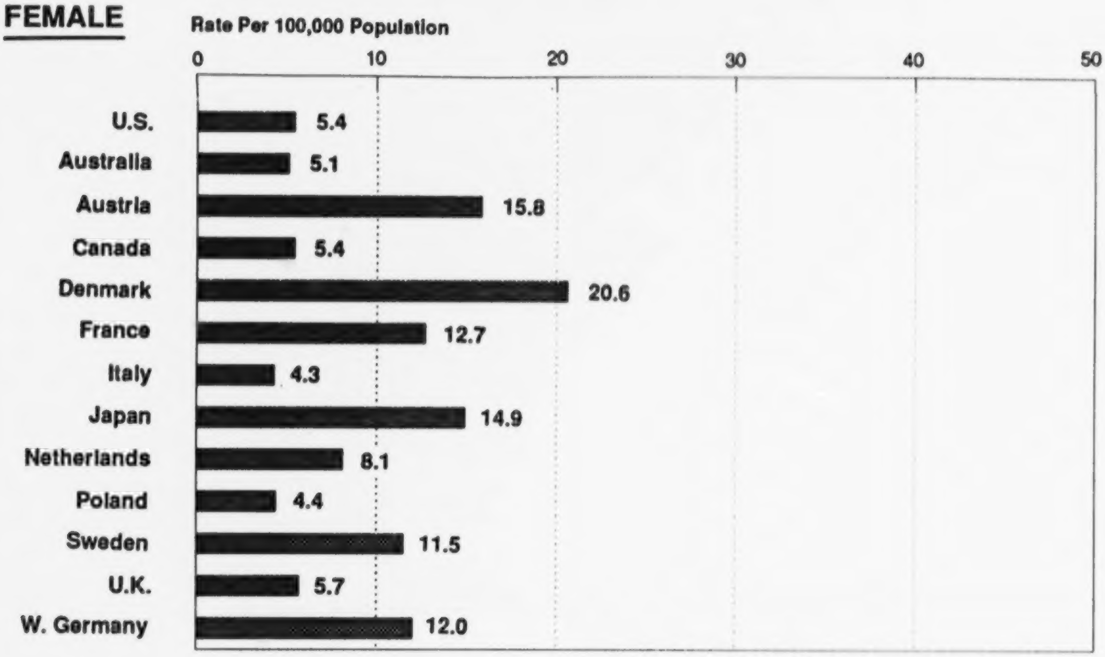
SUICIDE RATES FOR SELECTED COUNTRIES

- Also See Table at Bottom of Preceding Page -

MALE



FEMALE



Source: World Eagle chart. Data from 1989 Statistical Abstract of the United States. Table 1408. P. 820.

LATEST RANKINGS OF THE TOP FARM STATES

- by selected characteristics -

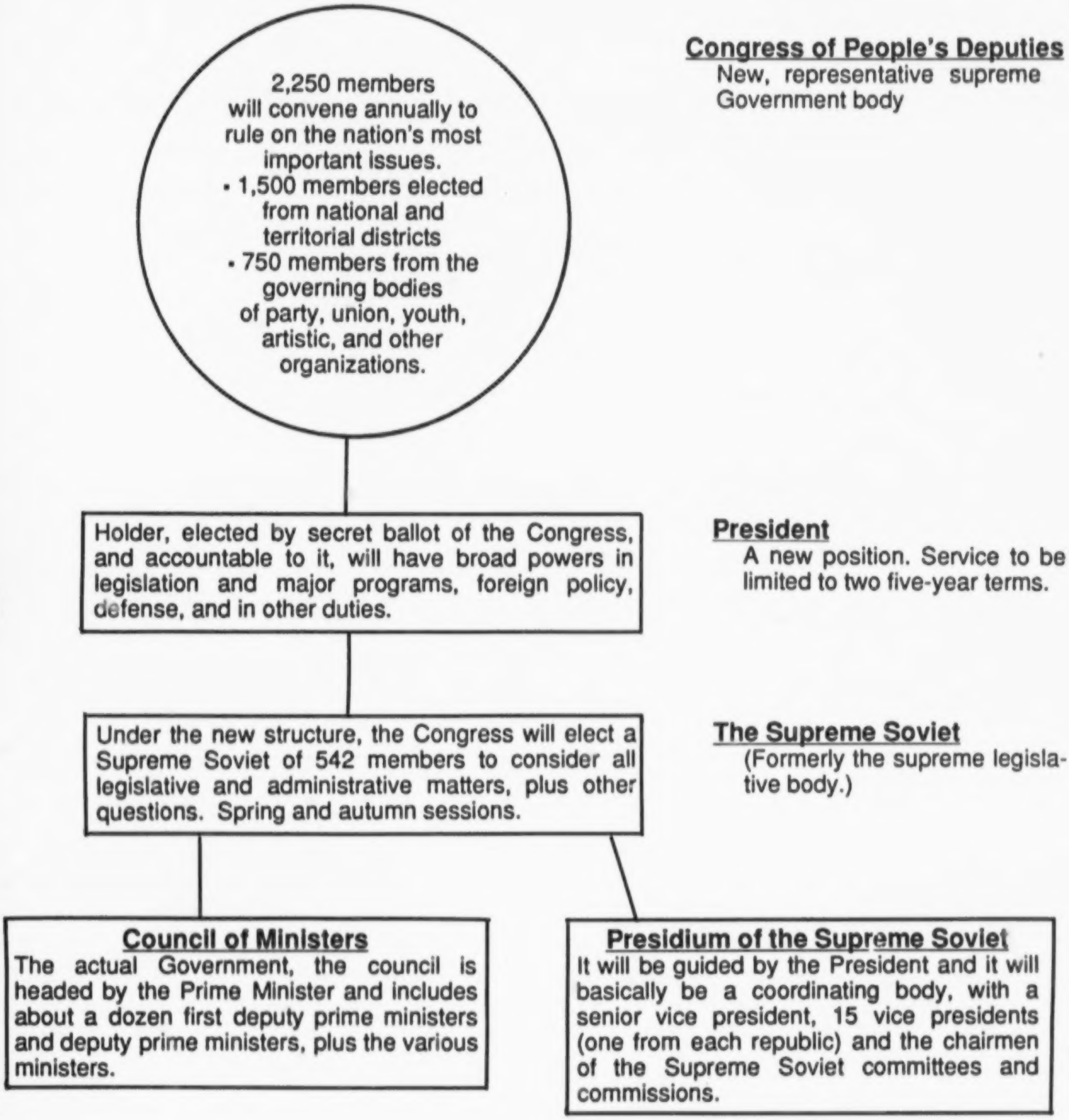
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th
Number of farms, June 1, 1988 farms: U.S. total: 2,158,800 farms	**Texas** 156,000	Missouri **113,000**	**Iowa** 107,000	Kentucky **99,000**	**Tennessee** 94,000	Minnesota[1] **94,000**	**Ohio** 84,000	Illinois **83,000**
Land in farms, June 1, 1988 acres, in thousands: U.S. total: 998,692,000 acres	**Texas** 132,000	Montana **60,700**	**Kansas** 47,900	Nebraska **47,100**	**New Mexico** 45,000	So. Dakota **44,100**	**No. Dakota** 40,400	Arizona **36,500**
Average farm size, June 1, 1988 avg. acres per farm: U.S. average: 463 acres	**Arizona** 4,506	Wyoming **4,000**	**Nevada** 3,667	New Mexico **3,333**	**Montana** 2,605	Alaska **2,123**	**So. Dakota** 1,278	No. Dakota **1,243**
Total value of farm real estate (land & buildings), Feb. 1, 1988 millions of dollars: U.S. total: $563,265,000,000[2]	**Texas** 62,113	California **43,701**	**Illinois** 31,850	Iowa **29,803**	**Florida** 20,750	Kansas **17,637**	**Missouri** 17,503	Nebraska **17,280**
Farm real estate values per acre, Feb. 1, 1988 avg. value, $ per acre: U.S. average: $564 per acre[2]	**R. Island** 6,240	N. Jersey[1] **6,189**	**Conn.** 4,914	Mass. **3,534**	**New Hamp.** 2,037	Maryland **2,014**	**Delaware** 1,895	Pennsylvania **1,819**
Acres planted to principal field crops, 1988 acres, in thousands: U.S. total: 308,344,000	**Iowa** 24,692	Illinois **22,949**	**Minnesota** 20,648	North Dakota **19,798**	**Kansas** 19,302	Texas **17,986**	**Nebraska** 17,349	South Dakota **15,191**
Number of cattle & calves, Jan. 1, 1989 thousand head: U.S. total: 99,484,000	**Texas** 13,700	Kansas **5,900**	**Nebraska** 5,400	Oklahoma **5,200**	**Iowa** 4,750	California **4,700**	**Missouri** 4,500	Wisconsin **4,130**
Number of hogs & pigs, Dec. 1, 1988 thousand head: U.S. total: 55,299,000 head	**Iowa** 13,900	Illinois **5,600**	**Minnesota** 4,690	Indiana **4,300**	**Nebrask** 4,050	Missouri **2,850**	**No. Carolina** 2,700	Ohio **2,210**
Broiler production, 1987 millions of birds: U.S. total: 5,002,934,000 birds	**Arkansas** 879	Georgia **733**	**Alabama** 666	No. Carolina **478**	**Miss.** 343	Maryland **264**	**Texas** 259	Delaware **209**
Number of sheep & lambs, Jan. 1, 1989 thousand head: U.S. total: 10,802,100 head	**Texas** 1,900	California **940**	**Wyoming** 837	Colorado **825**	**So. Dakota** 590	Montana **568**	**Utah** 503	Oregon **475**
Cash receipts from crop marketings, 1987 millions of dollars: U.S. total: $61,876,000,000	**California** 10,781	Florida **4,125**	**Illinois** 3,913	Iowa[1] **3,510**	**Minn.**[1] 3,510	Texas **3,027**	**Indiana** 2,016	Nebraska **1,975**
Cash receipts from marketings of livestock products, 1987 millions of dollars: U.S. total: $76,218,000,000	**Texas** 6,059	Iowa **5,270**	**Nebraska** 4,848	California **4,741**	**Wisconsin** 4,222	Kansas **3,914**	**Minnesota** 3,645	Colorado **2,321**
Direct government payments to farmers, 1987 millions of dollars: U.S. total: $16,746,732,000	**Iowa** 1,988	Illinois **1,477**	**Texas** 1,441	Nebraska **1,275**	**Minnesota** 1,193	Kansas **966**	**No. Dakota** 719	Indiana **670**
Net cash income from farming, 1987 millions of dollars: U.S. total: $57,060,000,000	**California** 6,183	Iowa **3,941**	**Texas** 3,597	Illinois **2,722**	**Minnesota** 2,703	Nebraska **2,648**	**Florida** 2,639	Wisconsin **2,260**

[1] Where state data are equal, rankings are based on the previous year's numbers. [2] Excludes Alaska and Hawaii

Data are from the Economic Research Service and National Agricultural Statistics Service

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture.
Farmline, May 1989. P. 19.

THE NEW GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE IN USSR



Congress of People's Deputies
New, representative supreme Government body

2,250 members will convene annually to rule on the nation's most important issues.
- 1,500 members elected from national and territorial districts
- 750 members from the governing bodies of party, union, youth, artistic, and other organizations.

President
A new position. Service to be limited to two five-year terms.

Holder, elected by secret ballot of the Congress, and accountable to it, will have broad powers in legislation and major programs, foreign policy, defense, and in other duties.

The Supreme Soviet
(Formerly the supreme legislative body.)

Under the new structure, the Congress will elect a Supreme Soviet of 542 members to consider all legislative and administrative matters, plus other questions. Spring and autumn sessions.

Council of Ministers
The actual Government, the council is headed by the Prime Minister and includes about a dozen first deputy prime ministers and deputy prime ministers, plus the various ministers.

Presidium of the Supreme Soviet
It will be guided by the President and it will basically be a coordinating body, with a senior vice president, 15 vice presidents (one from each republic) and the chairmen of the Supreme Soviet committees and commissions.

World Eagle chart based on one in The New York Times, May 26, 1989. P. A6.

THE U.S. DEPARTMENT OF STATE SPEAKS ABOUT INTERNATIONAL TERRORISM

The following text is reprinted from the Department of State's GIST (April 1989) which the Department describes as "A quick reference aid on U.S. foreign relations, not a comprehensive policy statement."

International Terrorism and the Counter-Terrorism Policy of the U.S. April 1989

Background: International terrorism is a serious threat to the US and the world. The US is a prime target because our policies, values, and culture are directly opposed by many terrorist groups and because the US has an extensive official and commercial presence overseas, Israel, Western democracies, and moderate Arab governments also are major targets. State sponsorship of terrorist activity has caused great increases in both the number of attacks and the resulting casualties. Since 1980, nearly 6,000 terrorist incidents have occurred worldwide, leaving more than 4,000 people dead and 11,000 wounded. The bombing of Pan Am Flight 103 in December 1988 was most probably an act of terrorism, although this is still under investigation. That single bombing killed 270 persons, including 189 Americans.

1988 Terrorist Activity: There were 855 acts of international terrorism in 1988, a 3% increase from the previous year and the highest yearly total ever recorded. In 68 countries last year, the citizens and property of 79 countries were attacked by international terrorists.

Attacks in the Middle East and by Middle Eastern-inspired terrorist groups outside the region accounted for 41% of the total. The Soviet-backed regime in Afghanistan was responsible for 124 terrorist bombings in neighboring Pakistan, roughly the same level as in 1987. Terrorism in Latin America increased 35% last year to a total of 146 attacks, 88 of them in Colombia. Attacks against American citizens or property, which account for 20-25% of the worldwide total, rose from 149 in 1987 to 185 last year; most of these took place in Latin America.

Some positive trends developed last year [1988]. For example, continuing improvements in physical security at both official and non-official facilities frustrated terrorist targeting. Western and other countries increased counterterrorist cooperation in the last several years and have imprisoned additional terrorists. Some state sponsors of terrorism have reduced their direct involvement in terrorist attacks.

US Policy: US counterterrorism policy has three main elements.

First, we make no concessions to terrorists holding official or private American citizens hostage. Specifically, we will not pay ransom, release prisoners, or change our policies in response to terrorist demands. Making deals with terrorists only encourages more terrorism. At the same time, without making concessions, the US Government will make every effort, including contact with the captors or their representatives, to obtain the release of hostages.

Second, we work with other countries to put pressure on the countries that support terrorism to persuade them that such support is not cost free. Among such countries are Iran, Libya, Syria, Cuba, South Yemen, and North Korea. These countries help terrorists by providing training, money, weapons, travel and identification documents, diplomatic pouch privileges, safe houses, and refuge. The US, working with friendly countries, seeks to isolate the terrorist countries by imposing economic, political, diplomatic, and -- if all else fails -- military pressures.

Third, we cooperate with friendly countries in developing practical measures to counter terrorism. These measures include:

- Identifying the terrorists by name and learning their goals, ideologies, sponsors, and areas of operation;
- Tracking them, particularly when they cross borders, and searching them for forged documents, weapons, and dangerous materials.
- Apprehending, prosecuting, and punishing terrorists. Although more needs to be done in these areas, we are beginning to see results. More terrorists are being caught before they can carry out their attacks, and more terrorists are being convicted and sentenced to stiff prison terms. Laws covering prosecution, exchange of evidence, and extradition are being improved and used more frequently to punish terrorists.

The US offers anti-terrorism training assistance to representatives of friendly governments trying to fight terrorism. More than 7,000 police and security personnel from nearly 60 countries have received such training since the program started in 1984. We also are working to provide more protection for American officials abroad and to make US embassies and facilities overseas more secure.

Because most terrorism originates and is carried out abroad, continued international cooperation is a key to future success in countering the terrorist threat, and a high priority is being given to improving this cooperation. *

WORLDQUIZ

In response to may requests, we will run an additional WORLDQUIZ in the January 1990 issue.

WORLD EAGLE'S NINTH ANNUAL WORLDQUIZ (ANSWERS are on Page 36.)

1. Approximately how many people live in the U.S.? (a) 42 million (b) 88 million (c) 145 million (d) 250 million (e) 486 million ________

2. Canada's population is approximately what percent of that of the U.S.? (a) 10% (b) 25% (c) 50% (d) about the same ________

3. How many people are there in the world today? Approximately (a) 850 million (b) 2.5 billion (c) 5 billion (d) 10 billion ________

4. The budget (budgeted outlays) of the Federal Government of the U.S. for Fiscal Year 1989 (ending 9/30/89) will be approximately (a) $480 quadrillion (b) $75 million (c) $1 billion (d) 1 trillion ________

5. How many times larger than one thousand is one million? ________

6.7. Name two of the four countries which border Ethiopia: ____________________

8. Of all the primary energy produced in the world today (each year, say), how much is produced by U.S.? Approximately (a) 21% (b) 5% (c) 54% (d) 36% ________

9. The name of the movement founded by Lech Walesa is: ________________

10. Overall, there is more food being produced in the world. On a per capita basis, compared with ten years ago, there is: (a) more (b) less (c) about the same ________

11.12. Which two countries border El Salvador?
____

13. The U.S. is the 4th most populous country in the world. Approximately what percent of the world's population does it have? ________

14.15.16. Which three countries have populations larger than the U.S.? ________________
____

17.18. Name two of the four countries which border Israel: ________________

19. Which slopes of the Cascade Mountains receive the most rain? (a) North (b) East (c) South (d) West ________

20. Which country is the U.S.'s largest total trade (exports plus imports) partner? ________

21. What percent of the world's population lives in the more than 50 countries of Africa? (51 plus Namibia and Western Sahara.) (a) about 2% (b) 10 to 12 % (c) 20 to 21% (d) a little more than 30% ________

22. What percent of the world's Gross National Product does the U.S. produce? Approximately (a) 5% (b) 10% (c) 25% (d) 40% ________

True or False

23. The land masses of the U.S. (all 50 States), China, Europe, and India could all fit within the boundaries of Africa. ________

24. The value of U.S. merchandise imports currently exceeds the value of its merchandise exports. ________

25. The value of U.S. agricultural imports currently exceeds the value of its agricultural exports. ________

26. The Missouri River is west of the Mississippi River. ________

27. ______ Prime Minister of Canada
28. ______ Chancellor of Federal Republic of Germany
29. ______ Panama strongman
30. ______ Prime Minister of United Kingdom
31. ______ Secretary of State, USA
32. ______ President of France
33. ______ General Secretary of the Communist Party, USSR
34. ______ President & Prime Minister of South Africa
35. ______ Chief Justice, U.S. Supreme Court
36. ______ Head of State of Libya

(a) Ronald Reagan
(b) Muammar el-Qaddafi
(c) Leonid Brezhnev
(d) William Rehnquist
(e) Mikhail Gorbachev
(f) Helmut Kohl
(g) Margaret Thatcher
(h) Brian Mulroney
(i) Pieter Botha
(j) Henry Kissinger
(k) Gen. Manuel Noriega
(l) James Baker
(m) Richard Nixon
(n) Francois Mitterand

37.38. Name two of the five states which border Virginia: ________________

39. One of the 50 states in the U.S. has more than 10% of the population of the U.S. It is: ________

40.41.42.43. The other four (in any order) of the five most populous states in the U.S. are: ____________________

44. Simplistically speaking, we can say that winds in most of the Lower 48 of the U.S. usually move from (a) North to South (b) East to West (c) South to North (d) West to East ________

continued →

40

WORLDQUIZ continued

45.46.47.48.49. Name 5 of the 12 countries which border USSR: ____________________
____

50.51. Tiananmen Square is in which city __________, which is the capital of what country ____________________

52.53. The names of Canada's two most populous Provinces which contain about 62% of its population are: ____________________

In which country would you find each of these major cities?

54. Baghdad __________
55. Damascus __________
56. Cairo __________
57. Casablanca __________
58. Toronto __________
59. Johannesburg __________
60. San Salvador __________
61. Beirut __________
62. Athens __________
63. Tehran __________
64. Mecca __________
65. Berlin __________
66. Barcelona __________
67. Dhaka __________
68. Manila __________
69. Sao Paulo __________

70.71. Driving a direct route from Los Angeles to New York would be approximately how many miles (within 250 miles)? __________ And sailing a direct route from New York to Southampton, England (within 250 miles)? __________

72.73.74. Of the 5 Great Lakes, which is the largest? __________ Which is easternmost? __________ Which lies north-south? __________

75.76.77. New York and Los Angeles are the two largest cities in the U.S. Name the next three (in any order): ____________________

78. (In June 1987), which country passed a law banning nuclear arms and nuclear-powered ships from its waters? ____________________

79. The name of the Republic of South Africa's policy which most of the world objects to is ____________________

80. Far and away the largest major weapons importer in the Third World in the last 15 years has been (a) Far East (b) North Africa (c) Sub-Saharan Africa (d) Central America (e) Middle East __________

81. Which country has the largest reserves of natural gas and produces the largest amount of crude oil? ____________________

82. In Iran, the majority of that country's 52 million people belong to the __________ branch of Islam.

83. The other major Muslim branch is the ____________________

In which country would you find each of the following?

84. Mt. Kilimanjaro __________
85. Machu Picchu __________
86. Khyber Pass between Afghanistan and __________
87. The Forum Romanum __________
88. The Great Wall __________
89. (The) Acropolis __________
90. The Taj Mahal __________
91. The Louvre __________

What is the name of the body of water

92. Between Vietnam and the Philippines? ____________________

93. Between Saudi Arabia and Iran? __________

94. Between North & South Korea and Japan? ____________________

95. Excluding Albania, one country of Eastern Europe does not border directly on the Soviet Union. It is ____________________

96. Which is the most populous country in Africa? ____________________

97. In crossing the International Date Line west to east, if it's Monday in Japan, what day is it in Hawaii? ____________________

98. How many times larger than one million is one billion? __________

99.100. The name given to Mikhail Gorbachev's policy of openness is __________, and to his policy of restructuring ____________________

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SOME MAJOR DEVELOPMENTS AFFECTING NATO's HISTORY

June 1947—U.S. Secretary of State George C. Marshall proposed European Recovery Program for the economic rehabilitation of Europe (later became known as the Marshall Plan).

March 1948—Brussels Treaty mutual defense pact signed by Britain, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg.

June 1948—U.S. Senate adopted Vandenberg Resolution, which cleared many of the legal roadblocks to American participation in an Atlantic Alliance.

April 1949—The North Atlantic Treaty was signed in Washington by governments of Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

September 1950—U.S. President Truman announced that the United States would send a substantial number of U.S. ground forces to Europe.

October 1950—French Prime Minister René Pleven proposed creation of a European unified army, including German contingents, within the framework of NATO.

February 1952—Greece and Turkey joined NATO.

February 1952—North Atlantic Council meeting in Lisbon established ambitious conventional force goals for NATO countries and supported development of a European defense community.

August 1954—French National Assembly failed to ratify the European Defense Community treaty, terminating the project.

October 1954—The Western allies reached the Paris Agreements recognizing the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) as a sovereign state and establishing the Western European Union among the original Brussels Treaty powers plus Italy and the FRG.

December 1954—The North Atlantic Council supported the U.S. doctrine of "massive [nuclear] retaliation."

May 1955—Federal Republic of Germany became a member of NATO.

January 1959—European Economic Community was established.

August 1961—The Berlin Wall separating East and West Berlin was constructed.

September 1965—French President Charles de Gaulle announced France's intent to withdraw from NATO's integrated military structure.

March 1967—New NATO headquarters became operational in Brussels, Belgium after being moved from Paris.

December 1967—North Atlantic Council approved the "Harmel Report" on the Future Tasks of the Alliance specifying NATO's multiple goals of defense, deterrence, and seeking détente with the East. The allies also approved the "flexible response" doctrine as the replacement for massive retaliation.

October 1973—Conference on Mutual Balanced Force Reductions (MBFR) opened in Vienna.

August 1975—Helsinki Final Act of the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE) was signed.

December 1979—NATO decided to deploy intermediate-range nuclear force (INF) missiles in Western Europe while seeking limitations on the same systems.

December 1981—Spain became NATO's sixteenth member.

September 1986—The Conference on Confidence- and Security-Building Measures and Disarmament in Europe (CDE) resulted in the multilateral "Stockholm accord," which expanded the confidence-building measures included in the 1975 Helsinki Final Act.

December 1987—The United States and the Soviet Union signed the INF Treaty banning all ground-launched intermediate-range (500 km to 5,500 km) missiles from U.S. and Soviet arsenals.

June 1988—INF Treaty entered into force.

February 1989—The MBFR negotiations concluded without result.

March 1989—Negotiations on Conventional Armed Forces in Europe and follow-on CDE talks opened in Vienna.

Michael T. Tierney,
foreign affairs analyst,
CRS Foreign Affairs and National
Defense Division

Source: Library of Congress, CRS Review,
April-May 1989. P. 3.

ANSWERS TO WORLDQUIZ

1.(d) 2.(a) 3.(c) 4.(d) 5.one thousand 6.7.Sudan, Kenya, Somalia, Djibouti 8.(a) 9.Solidarity 10.(b) 11.12.Honduras, Guatemala, 13. 4or5% 14.15.16.China, India, USSR 17.18.Egypt, Lebanon, Syria, Jordan 19.(d) 20.Canada 21.(b) 22.(c) 23.True 24.True 25.False 26.True 27.(h) 28.(f) 29.(k) 30.(g) 31.(l) 32.(n) 33.(e) 34.(i) 35.(d) 36.(b) 37.38.WV,MD,KY,TN,NC 39.CA 40.41.42.43.NY,TX,FL,PA 44.(d) 45.46.47.48.49.Norway, Finland, Poland, Hungary, Romania, Czechoslovakia, Turkey, Iran, Afghanistan, China, Mongolia, North Korea 50.51.Beijing, China 52.53.Ontario & Quebec 54.Iraq 55.Syria 56.Egypt 57.Morocco 58.Canada 59.South Africa 60.El Salvador 61.Lebanon 62.Greece 63.Iran 64.Saudi Arabia 65.East Germany (GDR) 66.Spain 67.Bangladesh 68.Philippines 69.Brazil 70. 2,794 miles (Rand McNally 1987 Road Atlas) 71. 3,156 miles (1988 World Almanac) 72.Superior 73.Ontario 74.Michigan 75.76.77.Chicago, Houston, Philadelphia (in that order) 78.New Zealand 79.apartheid 80.(e) 81.USSR 82.Shiite or Shia 83.Sunni 84.Tanzania 85.Peru 86.Pakistan 87.Italy 88.China 89.Greece 90.India 91.France 92.South China Sea 93.Persian Gulf 94.Sea of Japan 95.Bulgaria 96.Nigeria 97.Sunday 98.one thousand 99.Glasnost 100.Perestroika.

Key Points of the U.S. Supreme Court 5 to 4 Ruling July 3, 1989, Webster vs. Reproductive Health Services

States may:

- Require doctors to determine through various tests whether a fetus at least 20 weeks old is "viable", or capable of surviving outside the womb. Many states make it a crime to abort a viable fetus.

- Ban any public employee -- doctor, nurse or other health care provider -- from performing or assisting in abortions other than those to save the life of the mother.

- Ban the use of any public hospital or other facilty for performing abortions other than those to save the life of the mother.

The Boston Globe, July 5, 1989. Pp. 1 & 4.

VOLUME XIII CUMULATIVE INDEX

Monthly abbreviations are: S, O, N, D, Ja, F, Mr, Ap, My, Je. A reference of S5 means September issue, page 5. PROFILES pages are indexed, and so, also are the individual items in them. A PROFILES (P) item on drug use in the November issue, page 18 would be indexed DRUGS: Use (P), N18, OPINION pages (O) are indexed and so are the items in them.

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THE DEVELOPING WORLD

Visit Booth 102 at NCSS Annual Meeting in St. Louis next month

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September	**The American Family**	**February**	**The Arms Race**
October	**The Environment**	**March**	**Employment and Housing**
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January	**U.S. and World Energy**	**June**	**U.S. and World Food**

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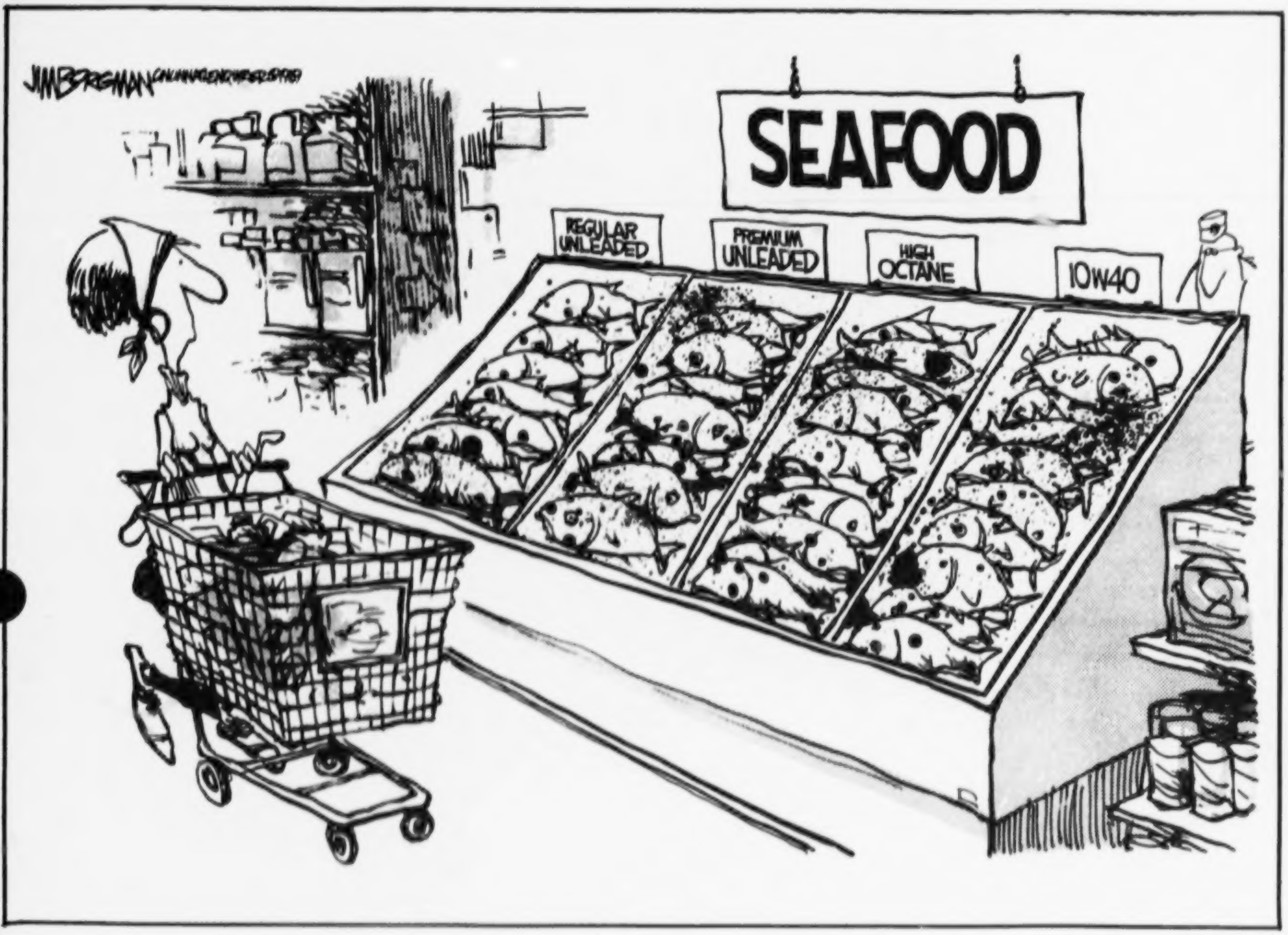
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GLOBAL CHANGE: THE CHALLENGE OF EARTH'S UNCERTAIN FATE

The following article is reprinted from the Harvard University Gazette, April 21, 1989. P.8.

The greenhouse effect is well established. It arises because the earth's atmosphere tends to trap heat near the surface. Carbon dioxide, water vapor, and other gases are relatively transparent to the visible and near-infrared wavelengths that carry most of the energy of sunlight, but they absorb more efficiently the longer, infrared wavelengths emitted by the earth. Hence, an increase in the atmospheric concentration of greenhouse gases tends to warm the surface.

Scientists are uncertain how the Earth will respond to stresses such as greenhouse gases accumulating in the atmosphere, but they do know that global change is happening at an alarming rate, according to Harvard professors at a symposium Saturday [April 15].

"We are entering an unprecedented period of change in our history," said Andrew Knoll, professor of biology. "Since we can't find a recorded precedent, we must go to geologic history and ask if these changes are unique. If they have occurred in the past, what were the consequences?"

According to Knoll, consequences of global change in the past are migration, adaptation, or extinction. If environmental change is faster than the rate at which animals and plants can migrate or adapt, extinction is inevitable.

"It is heartening to see [in the fossil record] that once diversity drops [in response to] a mass extinction, it tends to build back up again," Knoll said. "Unfortunately, it takes about 10 million years."

Knoll was one of five researchers to present an overview of the scientific underpinnings of the past decade's trend toward significant environmental changes at a symposium on Global Change held at the Museum of Comparative Zoology (MCZ). The talks were sponsored by the MCZ, the Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, and the Science, Technology, and Public Policy Program of the Kennedy School of Government.

The term 'global warming' includes the greenhouse effect whereby gases such as carbon dioxide and methane trap heat and warm up the lower atmosphere. Other pollutants, most notably chlorofluorocarbons, also contribute to the destruction of the ozone layer that protects the Earth from short-range ultraviolet rays.

Over the past 10 to 15 years, scientists have charted such dramatic changes as:

- an increase in carbon dioxide in the atmosphere by 70 parts per million, the highest level ever known, and still rising;
- an increase in methane in the atmosphere to three times greater than ever seen before, and still rising;
- loss of more than half of the ozone at certain times of the year over the Antarctic;
- an average annual global temperature increase over the past century by at least 0.3° C, according to the April 15 *Science News*. Scientists predict that as carbon dioxide and methane increase, there will be a 2-5° C rise in the surface temperature of the Earth in the next 50-100 years.

The symposium included the following discussions about global change:

Rate of change: Knoll cited research on a marine invertebrate—extinct for about 250 million years—in the fossil record. Scientists found periods of mass extinction that were not random; rather they occurred at times of great environmental change.

But it is not clear that they occurred simply when the level of carbon dioxide was at its highest or the sea level was lowest, or any other extremes of climate. Instead, these extinctions seemed to occur when the rates of any of these changes were high.

"It is not the fact of climate change or biological extinction that should concern us. Rather it is the rate of change," Knoll said.

Ozone loss: Significant global change is apparent in the atmosphere 20 kilometers above the Earth, according to Professor Michael McElroy, Abbott Lawrence Rotch Professor of Atmospheric Science and chairman of the Earth and Planetary Sciences Department.

Beginning in the mid-1970s, a rapid drop in ozone was recorded over Antarctica during the month of October. By 1987, McElroy said, there was half as much ozone over Antarctica than would be expected over the tropics, where ozone cover is always less.

McElroy said that his research team believed the ozone loss over Antarctica was particular to that area because of the extreme temperatures and the isolation of air caught in a spinning vortex there. When the team recently traveled to Norway for similar studies of the Arctic atmosphere, "many of us believed that we would not find anything very interesting." Instead, they found "conditions, if anything, more severe than in the Antarctic."

Although the group had to leave Norway before the yearly cycle of ozone loss began, the conditions were set up for ozone destruction to begin at a rate of 1 percent to 2 percent per day.

"There is no controversy that industrial chemicals are at fault in the ozone destruction in Antarctica," McElroy said, "and it's not just a spring (late September-early October) change anymore. Even in March, we can measure a residual loss," he said.

Phytoplankton Cycle: Global change could also have a dramatic impact on phytoplankton, microscopic marine plant life that are "major actors" in the cycle that has, over the history of life on Earth, buried carbon in the deep sea sediments and left residual oxygen in the atmosphere. Thus these plankton processes have helped to keep the atmospheric content of carbon dioxide low and that of oxygen high, according to James McCarthy, Alexander Agassiz professor of Biological Oceanography and director of the MCZ.

"If this hadn't happened, there would be no residual oxygen in the atmosphere and animal life, including *Homo sapiens*, wouldn't exist," McCarthy said.

That cycle begins when ocean phytoplankton use carbon dioxide in photosynthesis to produce organic matter. Residue from plankton sinks to the ocean floor and accumulates as marine sediments. With sea-floor spreading the ocean floor is eventually uplifted, at which time, the carbon-rich sediments are exposed to the atmosphere and consume oxygen during weathering, with a commensurate release of carbon dioxide.

If global temperature rises, however, the carbon cycle could be disrupted, said McCarthy.

"Most warming will occur in high latitudes. There will be different meteorology in the subpolar regions that today are very important, for both plankton blooms and the

continued at bottom of next page →

FOCUS Section

A VISION NEEDED OF THE KIND OF PLANET WE WANT

The following article is reprinted from the Harvard University Gazette, April 21, 1989. P.9.

Citizens must make local decisions with a global perspective if nations are to bring environmental changes under control, according to a Kennedy School policy researcher.

William Clark, faculty member in the Kennedy School's Science, Technology, and Public Policy Program, spoke on the human ecology of global change at last Saturday's seminar on global change.

"Local episodes of pollution that have occurred, say, in a single water basin . . . have expanded to where they involve multiple nations, and what had once been acute episodes of relatively reversible damage have expanded to problems like the greenhouse effect or toxic waste disposal that involve multiple generations . . . . A central challenge for humanity for the rest of this century and the early part of the next will be to learn how these increasingly large-scale interactions between environment and development can be better managed," Clark said.

For instance, Clark said the industrialization of developing countries could create new sources of acid rain. Currently, acid rain causes serious stresses to human respiratory health as well as to forest and lake ecosystems in the eastern United States and Canada, most of central Europe, and parts of Eastern China.

By 2020, acidification may be found in areas of heavy industrialization and susceptible soil types such as the rapidly industrializing areas of mid-Western Africa, including countries like Ivory Coast and Upper Volta, as well as Venezuela, Brazil, and the higher Malaysian Peninsula, according to Clark.

"Industrially-caused kinds of big-scale environmental change are not just a problem of developed nations," said Clark.

Global change will be felt differently according to climate zones and topology as well, Clark said, and in the next 20 to 30 years, many environments may be radically altered.

People living in coastal zones may expect population resettlement problems as sea levels rise; those in the mid-latitudes may experience forest damage through acid rain; semi-arid populations could see the spread of deserts as a result of climate change and population pressure. People living in the tropics might see soil depletion and agriculture decline because of increased land-clearing and acidification. Finally, in the extreme northern latitudes where the most rapid climate change is expected, ultraviolet penetration due to ozone loss could compound human health threats.

What are the human choices for this future? According to Clark, people can solve environmental problems. For instance, in 1962, the concentration of Strontium-90, a cancer-causing by-product of atmospheric bomb testing had built up to alarming levels. Concerns were raised about mothers' milk being poisoned. The problem was complicated not just by economics but also by international security concerns.

But, said Clark, "individual leadership intervened and there was a rapid falloff. Today that problem no longer exists."

Assigning blame for global change is not easy nor particularly productive, Clark said, because multiple causes influence each aspect of the issue. Instead, he proposed governments—both nationwide and community-based—adopt the following strategy to take into account the complex linkages among factors of global change:

- prevention—mitigate the degree of stress on the environment by taking action such as seeking higher energy efficiency and ending the use of chlorofluorocarbons;
- adaptation—increase resilience in the face of what is already inevitable change;
- research—finance long-term studies to come to grips with the consequences of change;
- organization—increase international institutions like the Montreal Protocol, a multinational agreement to reduce worldwide ozone damage.

Clark said that science can tell us what kind of planet would be associated with different development choices, but beyond this, a discussion of values must help people decide what world they want and what they are willing to do to get it.

"Without a vision of what kind of planet we want, we can't expect much systematic progress in improving our environment. Obligations come with the power to transform the biosphere," he said. ◆

GLOBAL CHANGE *(continued from page 2)*

delivery of plankton remains to the deep ocean sediments. Warmer polar regions will have different wind patterns. These will effect a change in the circulation of the upper ocean. This circulation change will disturb the distribution patterns of phytoplankton, and the availability of nutrients with consequences for the grand cycle of carbon between the ocean and the atmosphere."

Plants and CO2: Rising levels of carbon dioxide will result in changes in rainfall patterns, according to Fakhri Bazzaz, H.H. Timken Professor of Science.

Plant and animal life will respond in ways difficult to predict, he said, and again, it is an issue of rate. "My vote is for extinction, the complete disappearance of certain species of vegetation as carbon dioxide levels continue to rise," he said.

Bazzaz presented several findings from studies on the direct effect of increasing levels of carbon dioxide on plants. Because plants differ greatly in response to high carbon dioxide, the relationships between species will change, and the resulting competition will decrease plant diversity. The loss of plant diversity could, in turn, decrease animal diversity.

Studies also show that high carbon dioxide causes earlier and greater flowering, which has the potential to completely "scramble" the pollinating order whereby insects move from one species to another as the plants, in turn, bloom throughout the spring and summer months.

"The issue of plant growth in the presence of high concentrations of carbon dioxide is very complicated and cannot be approached naively," said Bazzaz. "We must amass the knowledge to make predictions. To paraphrase a colleague at National Center for Atmospheric Research, we must not let uncertainty stop us from taking action." ◆

—Nancy Spears

MUNICIPAL SOLID WASTES

The following is reprinted from Environmental Quality, The 18th and 19th Annual Report of the Council on Environmental Quality. 1989. Pages 1,3,4.

> Take your refuse elsewhere or you will be fined.
>
> Inscription on an ancient
> Roman signpost.

> In this Report, the terms "municipal solid waste", "trash", and "garbage" are used interchangeably.

"Americans are producing more solid waste than ever in our history and have fewer places to put it. This problem was dramatized in the spring of 1987 by the long voyage of the garbage scow Break of Dawn, which wandered the Atlantic Ocean for weeks, like a modern day Flying Dutchman, in a vain search for a place to unload its cargo of domestic waste from Long Island.

"Behind the sensational voyage are some sobering statistics. In 1960, Americans generated municipal type solid waste at the rate of 2.65 pounds per person per day. By 1986, that figure had climbed to 3.58 pounds, and the trend is up. Americans generate approximately one pound per person per day more garbage that their counterparts in West Germany, an equally industrialized nation. In gross terms, American municipal waste production has grown from 87.5 million tons per year in 1960 to 157.7 million tons in 1986, enough to fill a convoy of 10 ton garbage trucks, 145,000 miles long, which is over half the distance between earth and the moon.

"While the amount of trash has grown, facilities to handle it have become scarcer. In 1978, there were approximately 20,000 municipal landfills in operation. Today, less than 6,000 are still in use. By 1993 about a third of these will be filled. Many more will be closed due to inadequate safety or environmental practices as new standards take effect. Some states such as Florida, Massachusetts, New Hampshire and New Jersey are expecting to close just about all of their currently operating landfills in the next ten years.

"The number of new facilities being opened is declining. In the early 1970's roughly 300 to 400 new municipal landfills were being opened each year. During the last ten years, this number has dropped to between 50 and 200 new landfills per year, without a corresponding increase in landfill size to compensate for lost capacity.

"A large number of existing solid waste landfills do not meet current federal and state standards for safe design and operation. For example, only 25 percent of currently operating municipal landfills monitor groundwater for possible pollution. Less than 16 percent have natural or artificial liners. Only 5.2 percent collect the polluted leachate or liquid waste which is produced when liquids percolate through the refuse. Only half of these treat the leachate they collect. More than half of municipal landfills make no attempts to control water pollution resulting from the runoff of rain water from their sites. Less than half impose restrictions on receipt of bulk liquid wastes. These and other practices suggest that a large portion of landfilled municipal solid waste ends up in places where it might contaminate groundwater.

"Twenty-two percent of the sites on the Superfund National Priorities List, which includes the sites posing the greatest chemical hazards to public health and the environment, are municipal waste landfills. Most of these were developed prior to the imposition of state and federal regulations, and often received wastes that today are considered hazardous. Thousands of other landfills, mostly closed, are being investigated for similar problems. Uncertainty exists as to the overall risk to health and the environment posed by landfills.......

"...The siting of new waste facilities and the choice of waste processing technologies have ignited heated controversies in almost every city and county in the land. Some of the controversy is just an outgrowth of the so-called NIMBY, or not-in-my-backyard phenomenon....

"The cost of trash disposal is going up. Throughout America's history the price of disposing of the trash hardly registered on the average family budget. As late as 1982, most American municipalities were spending less than 0.5 percent of their municipal budgets on solid waste disposal. This compares with 36 percent for education, 5 percent for police protection, 3 percent for sewage disposal and 2 percent for fire protection. This is beginning to change. For example, in 1987, Newark, New Jersey paid out $6 million for waste management. by 1988, the cost had skyrocketed 500 percent of $30 million. The average family trash bill rose from $7.33 per month to $33.00 per month in less than a year's time...." ◆

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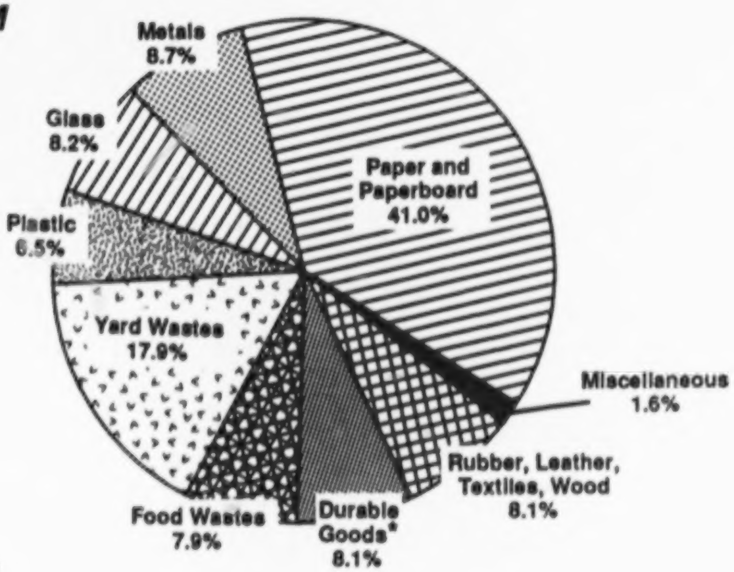
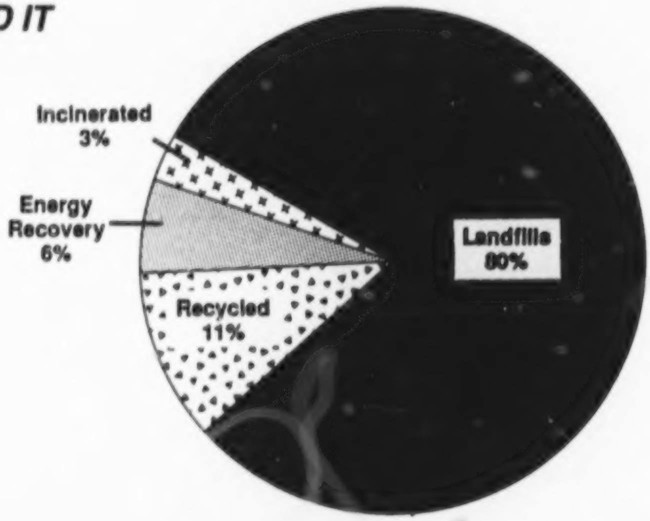
MUNICIPAL SOLID WASTE

WHERE IT COMES FROM



* Rubber, leather, textiles, wood

WHERE WE SEND IT



"...The word "garbage" comes from the French word for entrails, and once referred exclusively to food wastes. It may be fitting that the word has come to stand for the entire household waste stream, since food wastes evidence two of the most objectionable characteristics of solid waste, namely a tendency to putrefy rapidly and to attract vermin.

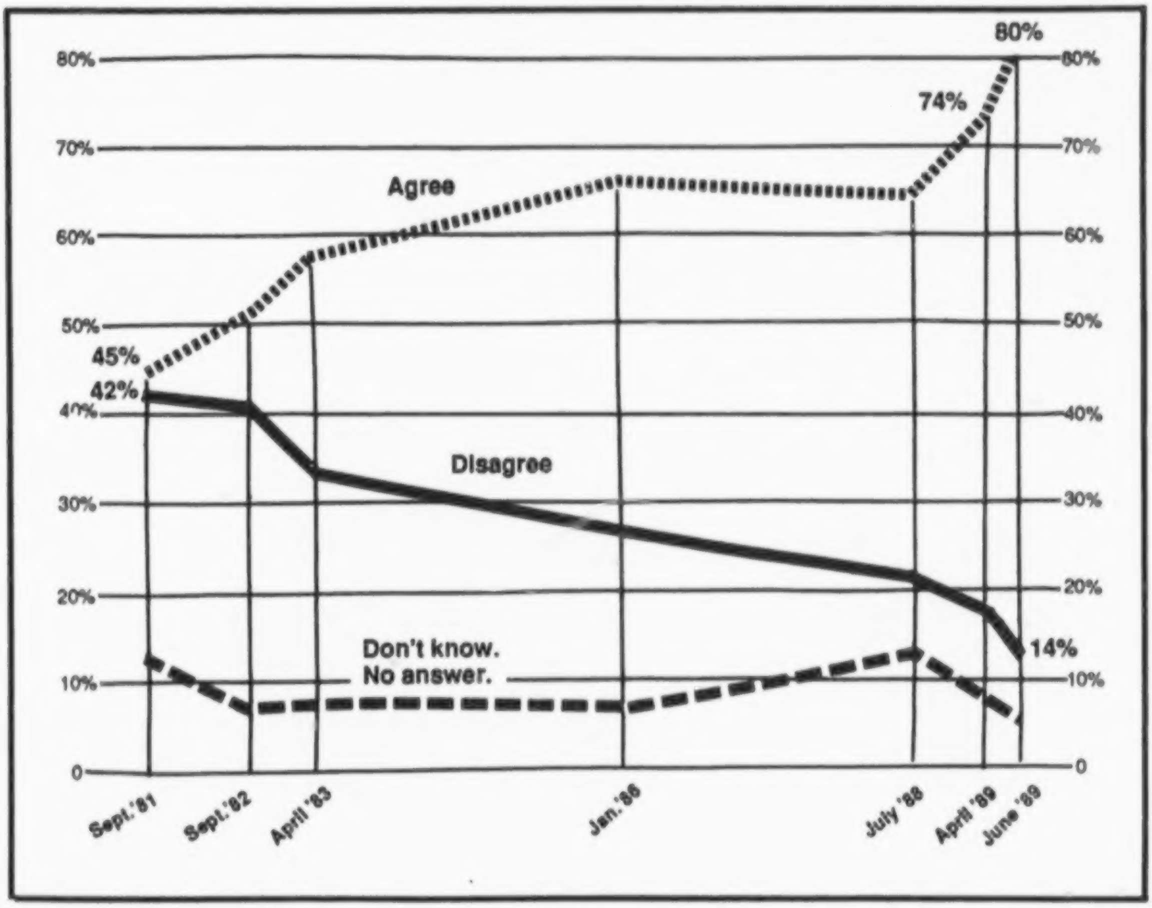
"Most food waste, like most trash, ends up in landfills. There it contributes to formation of leachate and methane gas, both of which are geneally undesirable. Food wastes will burn in incinerators, although their heat content is so low and their moisture content so high that they generally detract slightly from the incinerator's perfromance..."

Source: Environmental Quality, The 18th and 19th Annual Report of the Council on Environmental Quality. 1989. Pp. 7 & 17.

In a June 1989 New York Times Survey, 80% of the People Interviewed by Telephone Said They Agreed With The Following Statement:

Protecting the Environment Is So Important That Requirements and Standards Cannot Be Too High and Continuing Environmental Improvements Must Be Made Regardless of Cost

**Sampling error of June '89 Poll:
plus or minus three percentage points**



Based on a New York Times Poll and six New York Times/CBS News Polls. The latest survey was conducted by telephone June 20-25 with 1,497 adults nationwide. The September 1982 figures represent registered voters only.

World Eagle adaptation of a graph by The New York Times in its July 2, 1989 edition. P. 1.

HUMANS PREPARED FOR BEARS AND BURGLARS BUT NOT FOR BIG THREATS

The following is reprinted from the Stanford University Campus Report, April 5, 1989. P.8.

Human brains and the global environment are "mismatched," according to Robert Ornstein, president of the Institute for the Study of Human Knowledge, and Paul Ehrlich, the Bing professor of population studies at Stanford.

Nervous systems well equipped to respond rapidly to individual crises — a bear at the entrance to a cave — are not geared to comprehend gradual changes threatening the globe, they declare in *New World-New Mind: Moving Toward Conscious Evolution*, published by Doubleday (302 pp., cloth, $18.95).

'Our nervous system evolved to select only a small extract of reality and to ignore the rest'

"Civilization is threatened by changes taking place over years and decades," they warn. "That is a time scale too leisurely for a nervous system attuned to bears, branches, burglars and downpours."

But "the changes are much too rapid to allow biological or cultural evolutionary processes to adapt people to them. We are out of joint with the times. . . .

"Humanity is refashioning the world so quickly now that each decade's environment differs dramatically from the last.

"Each triumph of technology contains new kinds of threats. With the advent of television and other modern communications, we can even feel threatened by events, such as terrorist acts, occurring thousands of miles away.

"The psychological tendency is to respond to them immediately, as if they were local emergencies, while at the same time we ignore some occurrences, such as the gradual increase in homeless people or the thinning of the ozone layer, that really are serious threats to us or our neighbors. . . .

"Americans continue to slaughter more people each day with handguns than all the people terrorists have killed. . . . No one does anything about it. . . .

"The slow changes in the size of human populations, the increasing extinction of other species and the proliferation of nuclear weapons . . . are threats much more dangerous than hostages, mass murderers, lightning bolts and drunken drivers. . . .

"We don't perceive the world as it is because our nervous system evolved to select only a small extract of reality and to ignore the rest. . . .

"Our nervous system is impressed only by dramatic changes. . . .

"When truly long-term changes occurred, early hominids could do little or nothing about it. They could respond to undesirable shifts in climate or to a gradual reduction in the availability of game or fruit only by migrating or perishing. But such changes were rare.

"The environment, both natural and cultural, remained very constant for very long periods, hundreds of thousands of years in the case of early human beings. . . .

"Since little or nothing adaptive could have been done by individuals about . . . long-term trends, perceptions of gradual long-term change may have been actively suppressed in the course of our evolution.

"Take a look at photographs of yourself or your friends a decade or more ago. One is almost invariably surprised at how different we looked — the weird hairstyles, the strange clothes and so on.

"Our perception ordinarily is that we, and those we see frequently, are unchanging. We almost have to force ourselves to recognize advancing age. Only when comparisons are produced artificially by photographs can we see the long-term changes."

In the physical environment, dramatic changes are rapidly incorporated into the "normal" world, they add: "The brand-new house or car is taken for granted in a few months. Security checks at airports seem as though they've always been with us.

"Rush hour starts earlier and ends later; highways expand to four, then six, then eight lanes. Smog is incorporated into the weather reports and perceived as one of the normal, minor, daily perturbations in the environment. . . .

"Cultural evolution, in only a few generations, has made the size of the human population a threat to the survival of civilization. The gene pool cannot respond to that threat at all; for individuals to lower their reproductive output goes against the basic rules of biological evolution. . . .

"There may have to be another nuclear bomb dropped in anger before we will work seriously to prevent another large-scale nuclear war.

Eventually the weather report may sound like this: 'Clear skies on Thursday, followed by scattered nuclear explosions in the Northwest — with possible unseasonable freezes for a few months'

"The probability of global disaster goes up every year, but our consciousness of it does not. We seem to need shocks and tragedies to goad us into action. The old mind quickly tires of being cautioned, especially about dangers that cannot be avoided by immediate personal action.

"But if blindness to threatening global change continues, eventually a weather report might sound like this: 'Clear skies on Thursday, followed by scattered nuclear explosions in the Northwest — with possible unseasonable freezes for a few months.'"

Such long-term threats as acid rain, the greenhouse effect and destruction of the ozone layer "cannot be easily dealt with by a political system designed, like the old mind, to blot out long-term trends," Ornstein and Ehrlich believe.

While these threaten the entire planet with immense disruption, the call from most politicians is for more research — not action. Waiting for "proof" is like not worrying about a

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FOCUS Section

BEARS AND BURGLARS BUT NOT FOR BIG THREATS continued

game of Russian roulette "until you hear a bang in your ear," they add.

"Japan can serve as a warning system for other overdeveloped countries. That nation is so short of indigenous resources and so far advanced in its abuse of the environment that it may be the first rich country to go down the drain. . . .

"If civilization doesn't end with a bang, it can still end with a whimper. That humanity is on a slow-motion march to catastrophe is indicated by the current extinction crisis.

"Earth is ever more rapidly losing its biological riches — its stock of species and distinct populations of plants and animals. We are now entering an episode of extinctions that promises to be even more severe than the one in which the dinosaurs disappeared. . . .

"Roughly 10 to 30 million species of land animals exist on earth today. One of those species, humanity, now coopts almost 40 percent of the energy available for all — and it is 'planning' to double its numbers in the next century. . . .

"If civilization is to persist, the physical scale of human activity must be diminished in some way. Yet political leaders in both capitalist and socialist nations, businessmen, economists and media analysts all pray at the altar of perpetual economic growth without regard for its ultimate consequences.

"Just like frogs in a pan of water, we all sit still while our 'leaders' struggle to keep turning up the heat."

Yet "when the time is ripe social change can occur with astonishing rapidity," they note. In America, "the shift to small families actually took about three years in the early 1970s, without any government pressure whatsoever."

They note further examples: "Some social scientists believe we can't convert to a sustainable economy quickly enough to prevent an ecological collapse, and yet our entire economy was transformed to a wartime basis in a matter of a year or so at the beginning of World War II and changed back to a peacetime basis in a similar basis at the end of the war. . . .

"In a few decades, people in the United States have changed fundamental attitudes toward women, blacks and other minorities. . . .

"We are a more dangerous animal than we would like to think, but we also can change more than we might have dreamed, by calling on some of the very many diverse mental abilities within ourselves. . . .

We need to incorporate into everyone's thought processes the findings of a diversity of scientific disciplines that make clear that other people and other societies have their own sets of limited truths and needs, not necessarily any 'better' or 'worse' than our own.

"We need to incorporate into everyone's thought processes the findings of a diversity of scientific disciplines that make clear that other people and other societies have their own sets of limited truths and needs, not necessarily any 'better' or 'worse' than our own.

"We need to make available to students in a straightforward way the conclusion by all the world's great religions — and by some social scientists — that people can best be seen as 'one animal' — or as brothers and sisters, as it has been previously put.

"We need to produce a new kind of synthesis between the modern scientific understanding . . . and the essence of religious or esoteric traditions.

"Such new-mindedness could give an enormous boost to conservatism. After all, it is not conservative to destroy the riches of the earth for the sole benefit of a few people living in this generation.

"Nor is it conservative to build up armaments that, if used accidentally or purposefully, could annihilate civilization.

"It is not conservative to deny the full rights of large segments of society — people of the wrong color, sex, religion or social class. . . .

A new conservatism -- true conservatism -- would be dedicated to organizing a human society that can persist for millennia without degrading the life-support systems of its only home;

"A new conservatism — true conservatism — would be dedicated to organizing a human society that can persist for millennia without degrading the life-support systems of its only home; that can avoid large-scale conflict; and that, we hope, can enjoy not only freedom from want but the political freedom that is necessary if the minds of all are to cooperate in maintaining society.

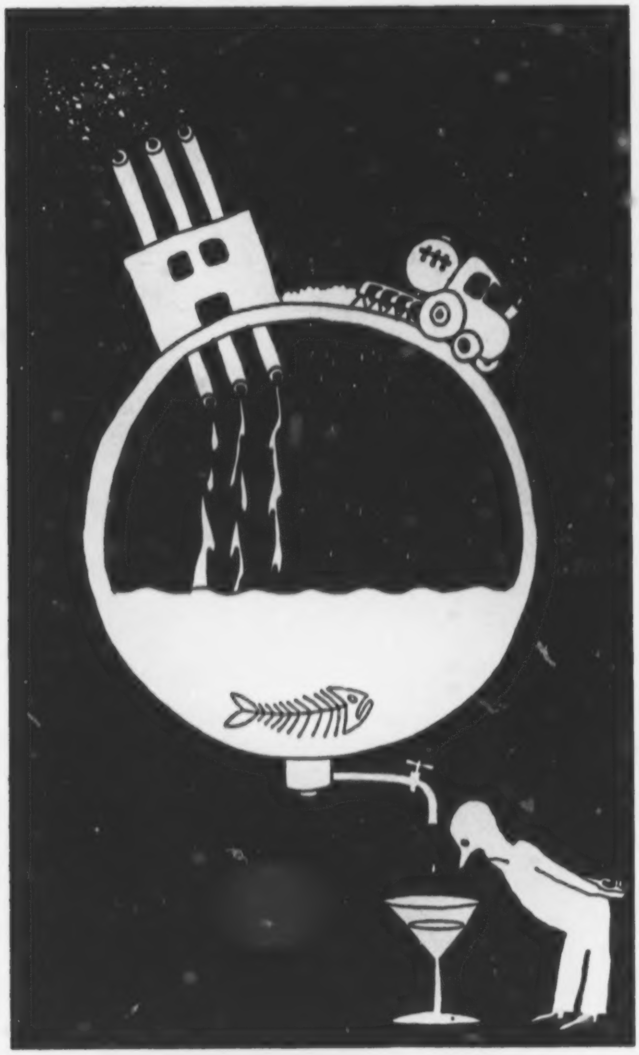
"Our species is now at its most important turning point since the Agricultural Revolution.

"For the first time humanity has the knowledge to destroy itself quickly, and for the first time humanity also has the knowledge to take its own evolution into its hands and change now, change the way people comprehend and think. . . .

"Can we learn to become conscious of the problems that face us collectively? Can humanity win through to a new conservatism and a better world? We think so." ◆

WATER: THE SINE QUA NON OF LIFE

Long-term readers of WORLD EAGLE will remember that we first printed this page in November 1983.



Rain water is not new water from heaven, so, although most human use of water implies dirtying it, the water must certainly be dirtied with the utmost care and respect for the fact that it is a non-renewable commodity, in the sense that it may become an impossible task to clean it sufficiently to support human life.

Source: From Tom Mikkelsen, Det Tevende Menneske (Proscratinating Man), Copenhagen, Forlaget Rhodos, 1981. The illustration by Jens Hage, is taken from the same book, with permission.

As Of Late July, Political Support Was Reported For An Economic Incentive Plan For Controlling Environmental Pollution

The following is reprinted from Harvard University Gazette, July 21, 1989. Page 1.

Economic incentives have long been discussed in academic circles as an effective means of controlling environmental pollution. Now, for the first time, politicians are beginning to take these ideas more seriously.

Project 88: Harnessing Market Forces to Protect Our Environment, by Kennedy School Assistant Professor of Public Policy Robert Stavins, offers ways of making the marketplace a partner, rather than an adversary, in the search for environmental protection. The study was sponsored by Senators Timothy E. Wirth (D-Colo.) and John Heinz (R-Pa.) and has recently gained the support of President Bush.

"This is the first time U.S. senators have lent their names to these ideas. Previously, this approach has been thought of as ivory tower thinking. I believe it will take time to break the political logjam that has developed during the Reagan administration, but I'm cautiously optimistic," Stavins said.

Reflecting the input of more than 50 contributors and reviewers from academia, the environmental community, government, and private industry, *Project 88* makes 36 specific recommendations for dealing with environmental problems like air pollution, toxic waste, acid rain, ozone depletion, global warming, and the management of public lands.

On the subject of air quality, Stavins favors a system of marketable emissions permits to encourage industry to curtail the release of pollutants into the atmosphere. Under this plan, each firm would be issued a permit to release a specific quantity of emissions. Firms that found it easy to limit their emissions could sell their unused permits to firms that could not meet the quota and needed more leeway.

"This convertibility of cleanup into revenue," the report says, "will give firms a powerful incentive to find cleaner (cheaper) ways of doing business and will put to work resources far greater than those currently commanded by regulators . . . ."

Stavins points out that the concept of tradable emissions permits, while innovative, is not entirely untried. When the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) phased out lead in gasoline, resulting in an 80 percent reduction over three years, it used a tradable permit approach, saving up to $2 billion in the process, Stavins said.

Other recommendations proposed in *Project 88* include the following:

- The Acid Rain Reduction Credit Program. Under this system, firms that reduced their emission of acid-producing pollutants to less than allowable levels would receive credits which they could sell to other firms.
- International Trading in Greenhouse Gases. Stavins proposes an international system organized by the United Nations in which countries would trade credits earned by reducing emission of chemicals that increase the greenhouse effect.
- Debt-Forest Swaps. Third World nations whose crushing debt forces them to destroy tropical forests to raise short-term funds could instead maintain their forests in return for debt forgiveness.
- Water Markets. By deregulating the marketing of water rights, Stavins believes that the efficiency of the system can be increased and that economic incentives for water conservation will be created as well. He considers such voluntary transfers far more efficient and less environmentally disruptive than large-scale water supply projects.

How has *Project 88* been received? So far, Congress has been generally receptive, and President Bush gave the study a boost when he commended it in his June 12 proposal for a clean air amendment. The Bush proposal also incorporates specific recommendations from the study.

Many environmental groups, particularly the Environmental Defense Fund, have been supportive as well. Others, however, have been critical of the study, a reaction that Stavins understands.

"They are suspicious of anything that has to do with economics because they correctly perceive economic forces to be the source of environmental problems in the first place," said Stavins. "But if we harness economic forces, they can be put in the service of the environment."

A longtime backpacker whose devotion to the cause of environmental protection is based on deep personal feelings for nature, Stavins said that a key event in his development came when he returned to the U.S. after spending four years in the Peace Corps, living in West Africa.

"I had been living in a mud hut in a society that was very much in harmony with its environment. The contrast when I came back was astounding. Just opening a refrigerator and seeing the amount of food inside but also noticing the ratio of paper and plastic to food substances was a real eye opener," he said.

Stavins is careful to point out what *Project 88* is *not* doing. "It's not a laissez faire approach, and we're not putting a dollar value on the natural environment or using benefit/cost analysis to set goals or standards. We're using the awesome power of millions of individual decision-makers and putting it in the service of the environment." ❖

ECOLOGY 89
International Congress & Exhibition
The Swedish Exhibition Centre, Gothenburg
August 28–31, 1989

Subtitled:
"From Problems to Strategies and Solution"

The following material has been selected from the advance press kit for ECOLOGY 89. Each of the authors cited was scheduled to be a plenary speaker at the Congress. Over 140 papers were scheduled to be read, and the Congress was to be opened by King Carl XVI Gustaf in his capacity as Chairman of the Swedish World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF).

On Environment And Development

"The environment has become one of our major problems, but politicians are still not actively engaged in environmental matters. Their principal attitude is to forget them rather than to come to grips with them."

"At the same time it is true that Thatcher, Gorbatjov and other leading politicians are talking about environmental questions today. The awareness is greater."

"But we have big problems. Politicians are often prepared to listen, but it takes a long time before they change their minds. This is why non-governmental pressure groups such as ours are very important."

"I often become surprised and really angry when people talk about environmental education in the cities. It is rather the so-called educated people who need the education more than anyone else."

"The more educated you are today in the Third World the more alienated you are."

"Development can continue at the expense of the environment, but only to a certain point and in the short range. In the long range such development is made at the cost of enormous human suffering. Countries such as India are rapidly approaching that point."

Anil K. Agarwal, Director, Centre for Science
and Environment, New Delhi, India

The Environment And Economic Growth

"A systemic economic fault, which initially played an insignificant role, came to be more evident and brought about damage to our environment that can be also expected to undermine future material requirements for the material elements of our living conditions."

"However, this is not reason for pessimism. We have the knowledge and a considerable body of public opinion, but ecnomic and material growth will progress more slowly with less consideration for special short-range interests than hitherto."

Professor Erik Dahmén, Stockholm School
of Economics

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continued →

ECOLOGY 89 continued

On The Greenhouse Effect

One of the most debated environmental problems in recent years is the so-called greenhouse effect. Increasing discharges of carbon dioxide and gases such as chlorofluorocarbons and methane are threatening to alter the climate of the world. A rise in the average temperature of the world can lead to great changes in the life criteria of hundreds of millions of people. We would risk increased desertification and the drying up of agricultural land. And as a consequence of a warmer climate the oceans may rise and thereby drown large densely popuated regions.

Today we speak of the greenhouse effect as one of the worst environmental threats. Actually, however,the greenhouse effect is not bad; it is a requisite for life on earth.
It is the very gases surrounding our globe -- among them, water vapor and carbon dioxide -- that sees to it that heat radiation is both reflected out into space as well as contained in our atmosphere. Without this process our planet would be transformed into a block of ice with all of its seas frozen and with a mean temperature of minus 20 degrees Celsius.

The problem is that man, by burning vast quantities of coal, oil and gas, is adding to the earth's "blanket" and thereby risking an increase in the greenhouse effect to the point where it will disrupt the world's climate.

Bert Bolin, Professor of Meteorology, University
of Stockholm

The Aim Is A Rich Life With Modest Means

"Everything is intimately united."
"Man is merely a part of a whole, not its center. Man has no right to poison the land and the water. It simply can't be so."

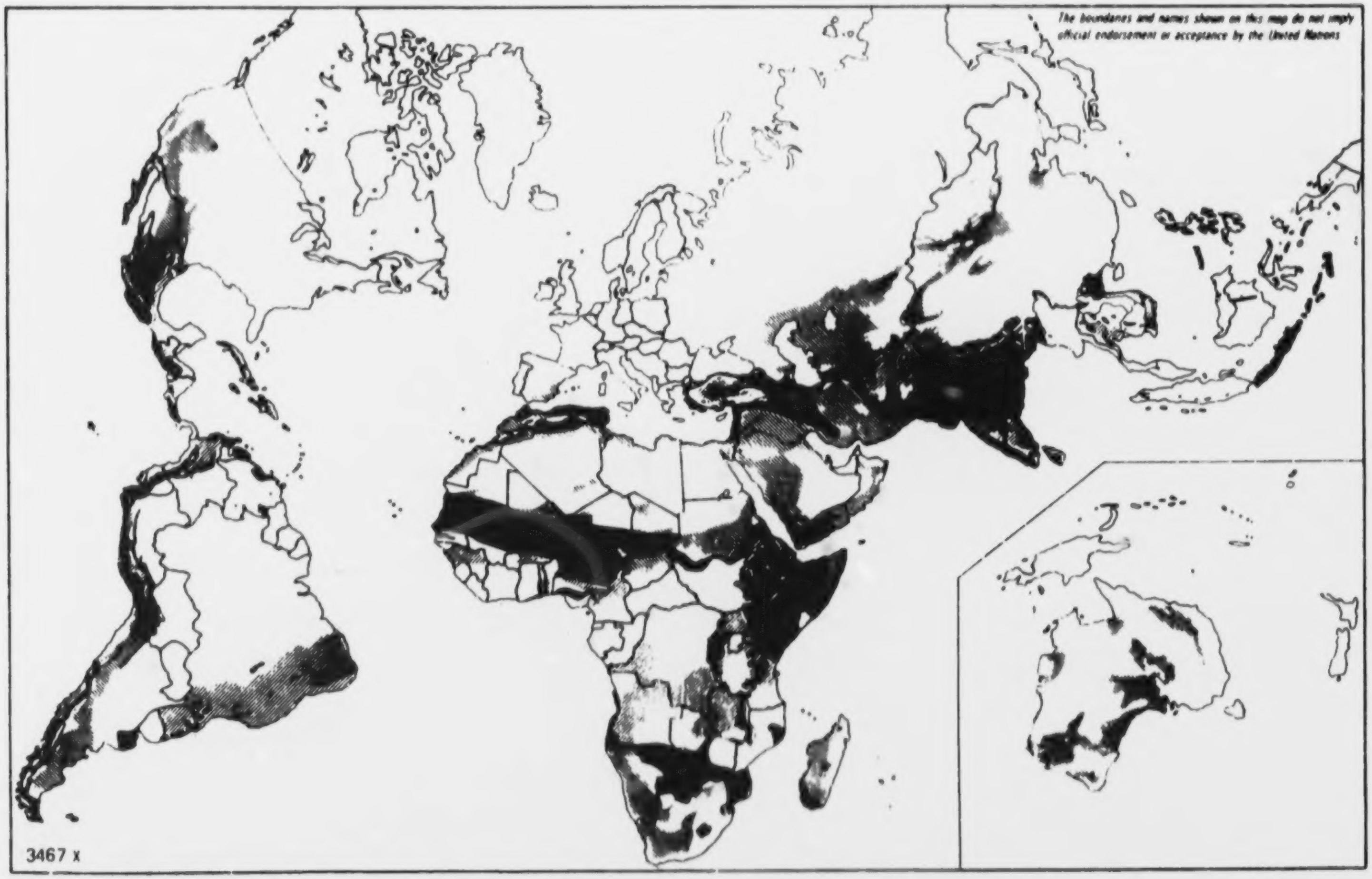
Naess belongs to what he calls the deep green movement and has coined the term ecosophy to describe what he believes in. He is an optimist and believes [in] man's ability to come to terms with our environmental problems.

"But we must change our lifestyles. Not to bring about a diminished quality of life, because that is not the same thing as material standards. The aim must be a rich life with modest means."

Arne Naess, Professor Emeritus, Council for
Environmental Studies, University of Oslo

World Eagle
64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

ENVIRONMENTAL HAZARDS


The boundaries and names shown on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations
3467 X

▨ Areas with very high or high risk of desertification

▨ Areas with acute scarcity or deficit of fuelwood

■ Areas unable to support their populations at minimum levels of nutrition with low-input agriculture (1975)

Source Based on *Land, Food and People* (Rome, FAO, 1984)

Source: United Nations. Population Bulletin of the United Nations. NOS. 21/22-1987. P. 36. Published 1988. Sales No.E.87.XIII.5

UPDATED ESTIMATES OF THE COST OF RAISING A CHILD

THE COST OF RAISING URBAN CHILDREN:

1988 annual average; moderate cost level[1]

Region and age of child (years)	Total	Food at home[2]	Food away from home	Clothing	Housing[3]	Medical care	Education	Transportation	All other[4]
MIDWEST:									
Under 1	$4,927	$640	$0	$155	$2,118	$365	$0	$904	$745
1	5,072	785	0	155	2,118	365	0	904	745
2 – 3	4,724	785	0	252	1,861	365	0	787	674
4 – 5	5,005	902	164	252	1,861	365	0	787	674
6	5,259	873	164	349	1,765	365	175	787	781
7 – 9	5,462	1,076	164	349	1,765	365	175	787	781
10 – 11	5,666	1,280	164	349	1,765	365	175	787	781
12	6,042	1,309	197	505	1,829	365	175	846	816
13 – 15	6,188	1,455	197	505	1,829	365	175	846	816
16 – 17	6,778	1,629	197	699	1,893	365	175	933	887
Total	100,596	20,392	2,494	6,830	33,372	6,570	2,100	14,928	13,910
NORTHEAST:									
Under 1	4,887	756	0	155	2,150	365	0	787	674
1	5,062	931	0	155	2,150	365	0	787	674
2 – 3	4,935	902	0	272	1,957	365	0	729	710
4 – 5	5,215	1,018	164	272	1,957	365	0	729	710
6	5,638	1,018	197	369	1,925	365	219	729	816
7 – 9	5,842	1,222	197	369	1,925	365	219	729	816
10 – 11	6,104	1,484	197	369	1,925	365	219	729	816
12	6,466	1,484	197	543	1,990	365	219	816	852
13 – 15	6,640	1,658	197	543	1,990	365	219	816	852
16 – 17	7,110	1,833	230	679	2,022	365	219	875	887
Total	106,227	23,303	2,758	7,142	35,682	6,570	2,628	13,878	14,266
SOUTH:									
Under 1	5,371	698	0	175	2,278	406	0	962	852
1	5,517	844	0	175	2,278	406	0	962	852
2 – 3	5,177	815	0	272	2,022	406	0	846	816
4 – 5	5,428	902	164	272	2,022	406	0	846	816
6	5,794	902	197	369	1,925	406	262	846	887
7 – 9	5,968	1,076	197	369	1,925	406	262	846	887
10 – 11	6,201	1,309	197	369	1,925	406	262	846	887
12	6,602	1,309	230	543	1,990	406	262	904	958
13 – 15	6,777	1,484	230	543	1,990	406	262	904	958
16 – 17	7,265	1,629	230	699	2,054	406	262	991	994
Total	109,661	20,743	2,890	7,222	36,262	7,308	3,144	15,982	16,110
WEST:									
Under 1	5,292	698	0	155	2,214	447	0	962	816
1	5,467	873	0	155	2,214	447	0	962	816
2 – 3	5,195	844	0	252	1,990	447	0	846	816
4 – 5	5,508	960	197	252	1,990	447	0	846	816
6	5,951	931	230	369	1,957	447	219	875	923
7 – 9	6,155	1,135	230	369	1,957	447	219	875	923
10 – 11	6,416	1,396	230	369	1,957	447	219	875	923
12	6,758	1,396	230	524	2,022	447	219	962	958
13 – 15	6,904	1,542	230	524	2,022	447	219	962	958
16 – 17	7,567	1,745	263	660	2,118	447	219	1,050	1,065
Total	112,017	21,819	3,220	6,948	36,454	8,046	2,628	16,506	16,396

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[1] Annual cost of raising a child from birth to age 18, by age, in a husband-wife family with no more than 5 children. For more information on these and additional child cost estimates, see USDA Miscellaneous Publication No. 1411, "USDA Estimates of the Cost of Raising a Child: A Guide to Their Use and Interpretation," by Carolyn S. Edwards, Family Economics Research Group, Agricultural Research Service, USDA.

[2] Includes home-produced food and school lunches.

[3] Includes shelter, fuel, utilities, household operations, furnishings, and equipment.

[4] Includes personal care, recreation, reading, and other miscellaneous expenditures.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Agricultural Research Service. Family Economics Review, 1989, Vol.2, No. 2. P. 24.

continued →

UPDATED ESTIMATES OF THE COST OF RAISING A CHILD

THE COST OF RAISING RURAL NONFARM CHILDREN:

1988 annual average; moderate cost level [1]

Region and age of child (years)	Total	Food at home[2]	Food away from home	Clothing	Housing[3]	Medical care	Education	Transportation	All other[4]
MIDWEST:									
Under 1	$4,654	$582	$0	$136	$2,022	$365	$0	$875	$674
1	4,799	727	0	136	2,022	365	0	875	674
2 – 3	4,270	698	0	214	1,701	325	0	729	603
4 – 5	4,518	815	131	214	1,701	325	0	729	603
6	4,910	815	164	330	1,669	325	175	758	674
7 – 9	5,084	989	164	330	1,669	325	175	758	674
10 – 11	5,317	1,222	164	330	1,669	325	175	758	674
12	5,715	1,222	164	505	1,733	325	175	846	745
13 – 15	5,860	1,367	164	505	1,733	325	175	846	745
16 – 17	6,292	1,513	197	621	1,765	365	175	875	781
Total	93,704	18,910	2,296	6,370	31,324	6,010	2,100	14,348	12,346
NORTHEAST:									
Under 1	5,404	698	0	155	2,278	365	0	1,021	887
1	5,550	844	0	155	2,278	365	0	1,021	887
2 – 3	5,303	815	0	252	2,086	365	0	933	852
4 – 5	5,616	931	197	252	2,086	365	0	933	852
6	6,067	931	230	369	2,054	365	262	933	923
7 – 9	6,241	1,105	230	369	2,054	365	262	933	923
10 – 11	6,503	1,367	230	369	2,054	365	262	933	923
12	6,890	1,367	230	563	2,118	365	262	991	994
13 – 15	7,065	1,542	230	563	2,118	365	262	991	994
16 – 17	7,670	1,716	263	738	2,182	365	262	1,079	1,065
Total	114,013	21,439	3,220	7,260	38,060	6,570	3,144	17,494	16,826
SOUTH:									
Under 1	5,575	698	0	175	2,278	406	0	1,166	852
1	5,692	815	0	175	2,278	406	0	1,166	852
2 – 3	5,163	785	0	272	1,957	406	0	962	781
4 – 5	5,477	902	197	272	1,957	406	0	962	781
6	5,742	873	197	369	1,893	406	219	933	852
7 – 9	5,916	1,047	197	369	1,893	406	219	933	852
10 – 11	6,149	1,280	197	369	1,893	406	219	933	852
12	6,599	1,280	230	563	1,957	406	219	1,021	923
13 – 15	6,744	1,425	230	563	1,957	406	219	1,021	923
16 – 17	7,311	1,600	263	796	1,990	406	219	1,079	958
Total	109,788	20,216	3,022	7,496	35,550	7,308	2,628	18,020	15,548
WEST:									
Under 1	5,805	698	0	155	2,310	447	0	1,166	1,029
1	5,951	844	0	155	2,310	447	0	1,166	1,029
2 – 3	5,377	815	0	252	1,990	406	0	991	923
4 – 5	5,690	931	197	252	1,990	406	0	991	923
6	6,173	902	197	388	1,957	447	262	991	1,029
7 – 9	6,376	1,105	197	388	1,957	447	262	991	1,029
10 – 11	6,609	1,338	197	388	1,957	447	262	991	1,029
12	7,060	1,338	230	582	2,022	447	262	1,079	1,100
13 – 15	7,235	1,513	230	582	2,022	447	262	1,079	1,100
16 – 17	7,913	1,716	263	679	2,150	447	262	1,225	1,171
Total	117,000	21,236	3,022	7,332	36,710	7,882	3,144	19,008	18,666

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[1] Annual cost of raising a child from birth to age 18, by age, in a husband-wife family with no more than 5 children. For more information on these and additional child cost estimates, see USDA Miscellaneous Publication No. 1411, "USDA Estimates of the Cost of Raising a Child: A Guide to Their Use and Interpretation," by Carolyn S. Edwards, Family Economics Research Group, Agricultural Research Service, USDA.

[2] Includes home-produced food and school lunches.

[3] Includes shelter, fuel, utilities, household operations, furnishings, and equipment.

[4] Includes personal care, recreation, reading, and other miscellaneous expenditures.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Agricultural Research Service. Family Economics Review, 1989, Vol.2, No. 2. P. 25.

WIVES' EARNINGS GROWING TWICE AS FAST AS HUSBANDS' EARNINGS, CENSUS BUREAU REPORTS

The average earnings of working wives grew about twice as fast as the earnings of husbands from 1981 to 1987, a report from the Commerce Department's Census Bureau shows.

The nation's wives averaged $13,250 in 1987, up 23 percent from $10,740 in 1981. Husbands gained by about 12 percent, up to $29,150 from $26,080. The figures are expressed in constant 1987 dollars to adjust for inflation.

Despite the larger growth rate for wives, they still earned less than half of husbands' earnings in 1987. The ratio was 57 percent for wives working year round and full time.

The report cites several reasons contributing to the larger percentage gain for wives. the proportion of wives working full time rose form 44 percent of 50 percent during the period; and wives in 1987 were more likely to be better educated, work in professional and managerial jobs, and have no children under age 18.

The growing work commitment by wives also is reflected in the fact that the number of wives with earnings greater than their husbands' rose from 4.1 million in 1981 to 5.3 million in 1987.

The real average earnings of wives grew by 2.3 percent from 1986 to 1987, while earnings by husbands did not change significantly.

Here are other highlights from the report:

- Wives working full time and year round earned an average of $18,930 in 1987 compared with $5,960 for those working part time. A total of 31.4 million wives were working.
- Wives with no children averaged $14,260, those with children under age 6 averaged $12,160, and those with children under age 6 and from age 6 to 17 averaged $10,730.
- Earnings of families with the husband and wife working in 1987 averaged $41,690. the average was $49,030 if both spouses were working year round and full time.
- In families where the husband worked but the wife did not, earnings averaged $31,010.

This report is the third in a series that provides data on earnings of husbands and wives that have not been available in other annual Current Population Reports. As in all surveys, the data are subject to sampling variability and response error.

Copies of Earnings of Married-Couple Families: 1987, Series P-60, No. 165, are available prepaid from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington DC 20402.

The following table shows statistics on earnings of husbands and wives by work experience form 1981 to 1987. ◆

continued →

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB89-118, July 26, 1989.

WIVES' EARNINGS continued

Mean Earnings of Husbands and Wives, by Work Experience of Husbands and Wives: 1981 to 1987

(An asterisk (*) preceding percent change indicates statistically significant change at the 90-percent confidence level)

Work experience of husbands and wives	Mean earnings								Percent change, real income		
	In 1987 dollars				In current dollars				1986 to 1987	1983 to 1987	1981 to 1987
	1987	1986	1983	1981	1987	1986	1983	1981			
HUSBANDS											
Total.	$29,154	$28,901	$26,214	$26,075	$29,154	$27,882	$22,980	$20,866	0.9	*11.2	*11.8
Worked at full-time jobs.	30,606	30,349	27,535	27,329	30,606	29,279	24,138	21,870	0.8	*11.2	*12.0
50 to 52 weeks.	33,005	32,794	30,266	29,741	33,005	31,638	26,532	23,800	0.6	*9.0	*11.0
40 to 49 weeks.	22,498	23,289	22,125	21,307	22,498	22,468	19,395	17,051	-3.4	1.7	*5.6
27 to 39 weeks.	16,609	17,315	15,717	16,894	16,609	16,706	13,778	13,519	-4.1	5.7	-1.7
26 weeks or less. . . .	9,414	10,011	8,537	8,280	9,414	9,658	7,484	6,626	-6.0	10.3	13.7
Worked at part-time jobs.	8,790	8,823	8,983	8,541	8,790	8,512	7,875	6,835	-0.4	-2.1	2.9
50 to 52 weeks.	12,196	12,919	13,726	11,673	12,196	12,464	12,032	9,341	-5.6	-11.1	4.5
49 weeks or less. . . .	6,013	5,938	5,607	6,429	6,013	5,729	4,915	5,145	1.3	7.2	-6.5
WIVES											
Total.	13,245	12,953	11,595	10,744	13,245	12,496	10,164	8,598	*2.3	*14.2	*23.3
Worked at full-time jobs.	16,603	16,301	14,716	13,692	16,603	15,726	12,900	10,957	*1.9	*12.8	*21.3
50 to 52 weeks.	18,929	18,844	17,158	16,329	18,929	18,180	15,041	13,067	0.5	*10.3	*15.9
40 to 49 weeks.	14,089	14,288	13,633	12,393	14,089	13,784	11,951	9,917	-1.4	3.3	*13.7
27 to 39 weeks.	11,212	10,346	9,471	8,779	11,212	9,981	8,302	7,025	*8.4	*18.4	*27.7
26 weeks or less. . . .	4,856	4,379	4,082	4,246	4,856	4,225	3,578	3,398	*10.9	*19.0	*14.4
Worked at part-time jobs.	5,959	5,666	5,251	4,787	5,959	5,466	4,603	3,831	*5.2	*13.5	*24.5
50 to 52 weeks.	8,387	8,292	7,813	7,345	8,387	8,000	6,849	5,878	1.1	*7.3	*14.2
49 weeks or less. . . .	3,770	3,565	3,249	3,207	3,770	3,439	2,848	2,566	*5.8	*16.0	*17.6

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Earnings of Married-Couple Families: 1987, Series P60, No. 165, as cited in Release CB89-118, July 26, 1989.

EUROPEAN MINISTERS TO SPEED UP ACTION TOWARD EQUALITY BETWEEN WOMEN AND MEN

European Ministers responsible for equality decided July 5, 1989 at Vienna to strengthen policies to speed up the realisation of effective equality between women and men and urged Council of Europe member governments to take measures to promote equal opportunities and to balance the inequal relationship between women and men.

They agreed the thrust of policy should be to:

- enable women and men to combine working life with home life and family responsibilities;
- set up machinery for framing and putting into effect policies for equality;
- implement national and international law on sex equality.

The ministers responsible for equality matters in the 23 Council of Europe member states, Canada, the Holy See and Yugoslavia, were holding their second conference at Vienna on 4 and 5 July 1989, at Austria's invitation. The general theme was "Political strategies for the achievement of real equality between women and men".

In their final Resolution the Ministers recommended that governments pursue a comprehensive, integrated policy on equality which took into account the problems of specific groups of women such as migrants, refugees, women in country areas and women bringing up family on their own.

They asked governments to:

- bear in mind, in policy-making, how their policies were likely to affect achievement of real equality;
- set up or strengthen national machinery for promoting sex equality and give such machinery the necessary powers and resources for carrying through special schemes and solving problems of discrimination (without encroaching on the jurisdiction of the courts);
- make sure national and international law on sex equality was properly implemented;
- promote the appointment of women, on a equal footing with men, to positions of responsibility, particularly political responsibility;
- help reconcile the demands of working life and family life by such measures as:
    - more suitable working hours and conditions;
    - parental leave for both parents;
    - improved child-care and school facilities;
    - equal rights as regards pay, pensions, welfare protection and health care

The Ministers also recommended that the Council of Europe take large-scale European-level action to inform the public about the equality issue and to speed up changes in attitude.

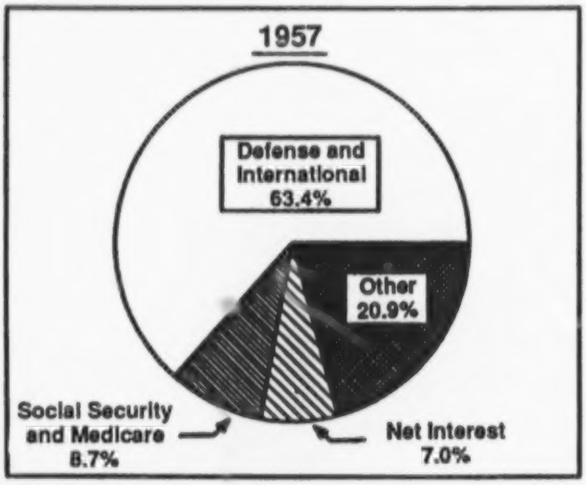
They likewise called on political parties, trade unions, employers organisations and other interest groups to help maximise women's contribution to the development of society and help women take part in decision making.

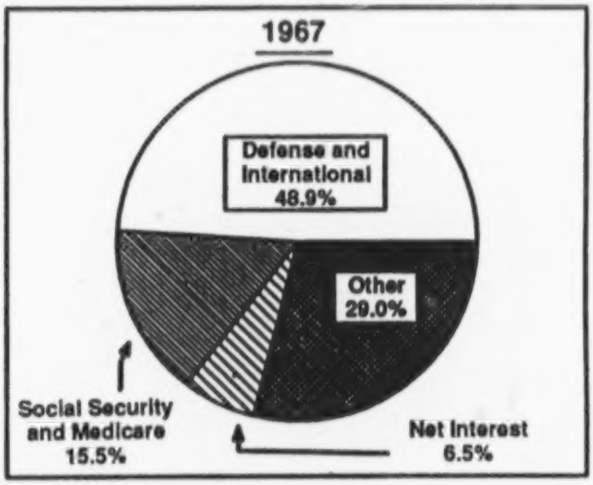
The Ministers' third European Conference on equality will be held in Italy in 1992 at the Italian Government's invitation. ❖

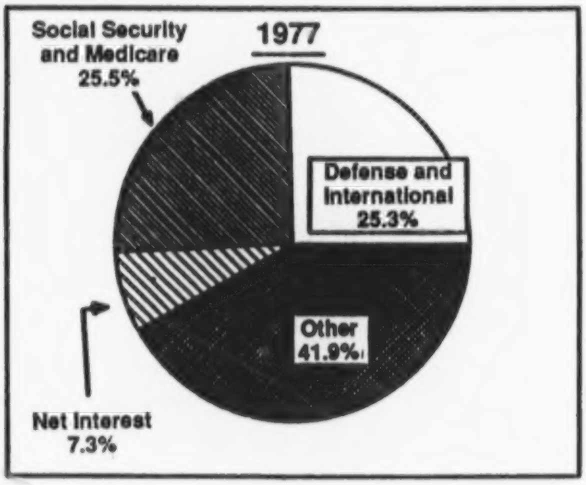
Source: Council of Europe Information Department. Strasbourg.

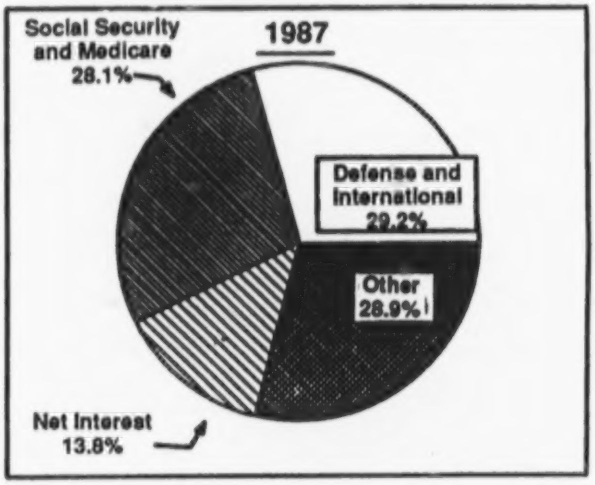
DOUBLE AND TRIPLE THE SHARE:

In 1987, Federal Government Outlays For Net Interest Were Twice The Share Of Budget Outlays In 1957, And The Outlays For Social Security And Medicare Were Three Times The Corresponding Share for 1957.









Source: National Economic Commission. Staff Papers, Background Papers, and Major Testimony. March 1989. P.45.

River Basins Of The United States: *THE COLORADO*

U.S. Department of the Interior/Geological Survey.
One of a series.

The Colorado is the fourth in this series to be reprinted by World Eagle.
River Basins treated earlier:
The Columbia, February 1989, pp. 20-22.
The Hudson, April 1989, pp. 14-16.
The Suwannee, June 1989, pp. 26-28.

Early Exploration and Settlement

Francisco de Ulloa, a Spanish soldier and explorer, was probably the first European to see the Colorado River. In 1776, Father Garces, a Spanish missionary, named it the "Rio Colorado." Congress applied the name "Colorado" to the entire river in 1921. A prehistoric race called the Hohokam lived and vanished in the Salt River Valley before the Hopi and the Pueblo Indians inhabited the area. Father Eusebio Kino established the Jesuit missions in 1700 at San Xavier Del Bac and in 1732 at Guevavi, both in Arizona. The first European settlement was established near present-day Tuçson, in 1776.

Headwaters

The river rises in the Rocky Mountain National Park in northcentral Colorado; it becomes a perennial stream near Poudre Pass in Colorado.

Mouth

The Colorado flows into the Gulf of California. The approximate latitude at the mouth is 32° N. and the approximate longitude is 115° W.

Major Tributaries

The Gunnison, White, Yampa, San Juan, Delores, Green, Little Colorado, Gila, and Virgin Rivers are major tributaries of the Colorado.

Course

From its headwaters, the river flows southwestward in a series of meanders across the high Colorado Plateau into southeastern Utah and through northwestern Arizona. Slashing through a wilderness of mountains, plateaus, and deserts, it is cliff-bound nine-tenths of its way and travels 1,000 miles through deep canyons. The Grand Canyon is the largest, the deepest, and the most spectacular. The Colorado then bends south to form boundaries between Nevada and Arizona and between Arizona and California. It flows into the Gulf of California, after first forming the boundary between the Mexican States of Sonora and Baja California.

Length

The Colorado River is approximately 1,440 miles long from its headwaters to its mouth in the Gulf of California. It ranks 6th among 135 U.S. rivers that are more than 100 miles long.

Width

The river is about 50 feet wide for the first 50 miles; at Grand Junction, Colo., it is 200 feet wide.

Depth

The river is about 30 feet deep in lower reaches of the Grand Canyon; it is not more than 10 feet in the upper reaches above the Grand Junction, Colo.

Rate of Flow

Near Lees Ferry, Ariz., the river's rate of flow is about 8 million gallons per minute (gpm); at the mouth it is about 2 million gpm.

Highest and Lowest Flow

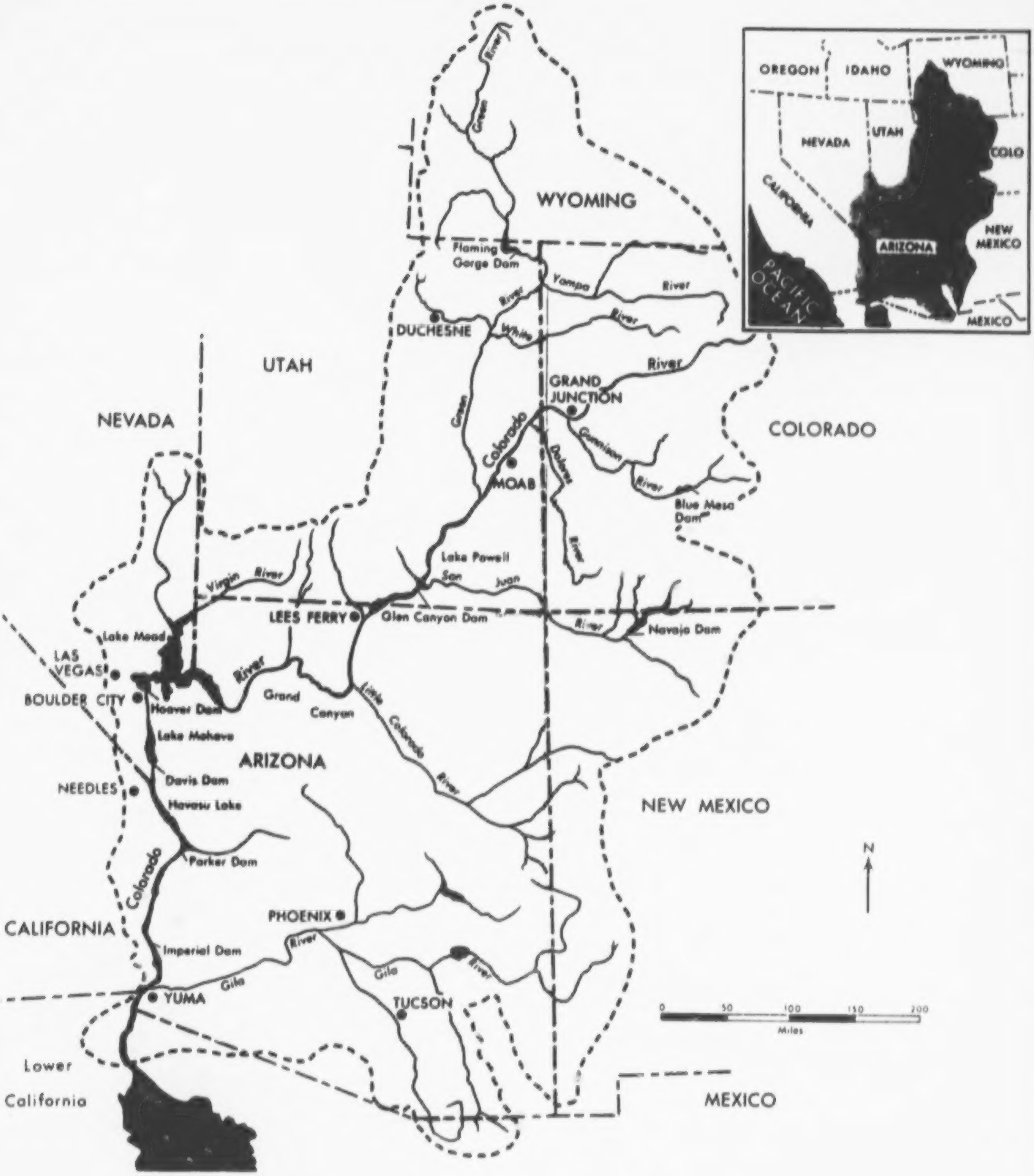
The highest recorded flow occurred at Yuma, Ariz., in 1916; the lowest natural (unregulated) flow occurred at Lees Ferry in 1924.

Dams, Reservoirs, and Canals

The Flaming Gorge Dam, Utah; the Navajo Dam, N. Mex.; the Glen Canyon Dam and Lake Powell, Ariz., and Utah; the Blue Mesa Dam, Colo.; the Hoover Dam and Lake Mead and Davis Dam and Lake Mohave, Nev.; and the Parker Dam and Havasu Lake and Imperial Dam, Ariz., are all a part of the Colorado River.

continued ⟶

THE COLORADO RIVER BASIN continued


OREGON
IDAHO
WYOMING
NEVADA
UTAH
COLO
CALIFORNIA
PACIFIC OCEAN
ARIZONA
NEW MEXICO
MEXICO
Green River
WYOMING
Flaming Gorge Dam
Yampa River
White River
DUCHESNE
UTAH
Green
Grand River
GRAND JUNCTION
NEVADA
Colorado
MOAB
Dolores
Gunnison River
Blue Mesa Dam
COLORADO
Lake Powell
San Juan River
Virgin River
LEES FERRY
Glen Canyon Dam
Navajo Dam
Lake Mead
LAS VEGAS
BOULDER CITY
Hoover Dam
River
Grand Canyon
Little Colorado River
Lake Mohave
ARIZONA
NEEDLES
Davis Dam
Havasu Lake
Parker Dam
Colorado
NEW MEXICO
N
CALIFORNIA
PHOENIX
Imperial Dam
Gila River
Gila River
YUMA
TUCSON
0
50
100
150
200
Miles
Lower California
MEXICO

continued

THE COLORADO RIVER BASIN continued

Geologic Setting

The Colorado River Basin lies in three physiographic provinces: Southern and Rocky Mountain, Basin and Range, and Colorado Plateau. About 240,000 square miles are arid to semiarid. The Colorado Plateau is composed of horizontal, sedimentary rock strata (sandstone, limestone, shale, conglomerate) which were uplifted thousands of feet, faulted, and carved by erosion into broad plateaus, mesas, buttes, natural bridges, and deep canyons. The Colorado Desert in the southwestern part of the basin is extremely arid and hot. Most of it is below sea level.

Drainage Area

The basin area is 243,000 square miles and includes parts of Wyoming, Colorado, Utah, New Mexico, Nevada, Arizona, and California.

Average Rainfall

An average of about 15 inches of rain falls annually over most of the basin, with a range of 5 inches in the Arizona deserts to more than 50 inches in the Colorado mountains.

Quality

The river once was one of the most silt-laden streams in the United States; now reservoirs trap most of the sediment. The average salinity is less than 50 parts per million (ppm) in headwater areas but often exceeds 1,000 ppm at the international boundary. Pollution from municipal and industrial wastes is slight except in the vicinity of cities and towns. Most ground water used for irrigation is not treated; that used for municipal supply is chlorinated.

Major Cities

Phoenix, Ariz., is the largest city in the basin. Cities of lesser size are Duchesne and Moab, Utah; Grand Junction, Colo.; Boulder City and Las Vegas, Nev.; Tucson and Yuma, Ariz.; and Needles, Calif.

Municipal and Industrial Water Use

Water use is limited because the basin is sparsely populated; it is one of the least populated areas of its size in the Western Hemisphere. The principal uses are hydroelectric power generation and irrigation which consumes nearly the entire flow. Large quantities of water are also diverted to adjacent areas for municipal, industrial, and irrigation uses. About 2 million people in the basin use approximately 400 million gallons of publicly supplied water each day and about ¼ of a million people in rural areas use approximately 25 million gallons of ground water daily.

Commercial Water Use

The river and its system of dams provide facilities for flood control, irrigation, hydroelectric power; and boating, fishing, skiing, and swimming.

Agriculture

Agricultural products which come from the basin are: fruits, some cotton, general farming, and grazing. Irrigated agriculture is practiced in every State in the basin.

Industry

Little industrial development exists in the basin except light industry in the Phoenix, Ariz., area.

Minerals

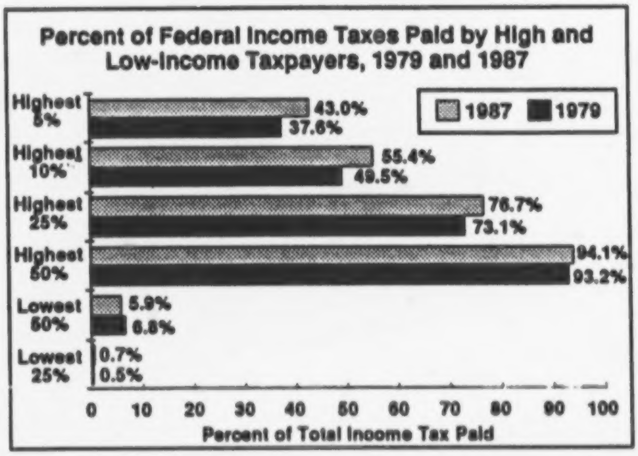
Minerals found in the basin are: uranium, zinc, silver, molybdenum, copper, gold, lead, coal, petroleum, and oil shale.

Water Data

The Hydrologic Data Network, maintained by the U.S. Geological Survey in cooperation with the individual States, is the chief source of basic data on water in this country. In cooperation with other agencies, the U.S. Geological Survey maintains 16,500 gaging stations that measure high and low flow of rivers, lakes, and streams; 27,500 observation wells that collect data on levels and pumpage of ground water; and 8,200 stations that measure water quality. ◆

Who Shoulders The U.S. Income Tax Burden?

TOP EARNING 10% PAYS OVER HALF; TOP HALF PAYS OVER 90%


Percent of Federal Income Taxes Paid by High and Low-Income Taxpayers, 1979 and 1987

The top earning half of the population continues to pay well over 90 percent of the Federal individual income tax bill, according to Tax Foundation analysis of preliminary IRS data for 1987 — the first comprehensive income tax data reflecting the effects of the Tax Reform Act of 1986 (TRA'86). Despite all the major tax legislation of the past decade, this group's share of the tax load has varied within a narrow 1.5 percent range — from a low of 92.6 percent in 1982 to a high of 94.1 percent for 1987.

The system remains progressive as the top ten percent of earners continue to shoulder a significantly larger share of the tax burden, up almost six percentage points, from 49.5 percent in 1979 to 55.4 percent in 1987. This growth in tax burden has occurred despite the alleged upper-income bias of the rate reductions and other tax cuts under the Economic Recovery Tax Act of 1981 (ERTA), and more recently the Tax Reform Act of 1986.

Growth in the income base itself has been increasing faster at the upper end of the income scale, resulting in increased income tax receipts from top earners. The 107 million returns filed for tax year 1987 reported an increase in adjusted gross income of about $300 billion, largely due to the fact that a number of income exclusions and adjustments were either repealed or limited by the new law. However, taxpayers reported receiving larger amounts of certain types of income, especially pension and annuity income. Over five million fewer returns showed itemized deductions. This was primarily due to the increase in the amount of the standard deduction all taxpayers can claim and a reduction in the deductions allowed, especially the elimination of the deduction for sales taxes.

At the bottom line, 1987 total individual income tax receipts reached $371 billion, a modest one percent or $4 billion increase over 1986 collections. However, the average amount of income tax paid per taxpayer declined from $4,374 to $4,280. Although 1987 total receipts increased by $4 billion, the income tax distribution reveals that those earning $50,000 or more paid $24 billion more in income tax in 1987 while the under $50,000 income groups experienced a tax reduction of $20 billion.

In 1987, the top five percent of earners paid an average tax of $29,820, up 71 percent from 1979. The top 10 percent paid $19,214, a 68 percent jump over what they paid in 1979. While the top ten percent, or 10.7 million earners, paid well over half the total income tax in 1987, their adjusted gross income ranged down to $54,700, not exactly "fat cat" status. It still takes millions of basically middle and upper-middle income taxpayers to pay the bulk of the total income tax bill.

Federal Income Taxes Paid by High and Low-Income Taxpayers, 1979 and 1987[a]

Adjusted Gross Income Class	Income Level		Percent of Tax Paid		Average Tax	
	1979	1987	1979	1987	1979	1987
Highest 5%	$ 39,000 or more	$ 71,125 or more	37.6%	43.0%	$ 17,407	$ 29,820
Highest 10%	32,710 or more	54,700 or more	49.5	55.4	11,456	19,214
Highest 25%	21,760 or more	34,260 or more	73.1	76.7	6,769	10,643
Highest 50%	11,870 or more	17,598 or more	93.2	94.1	4,315	6,526
Lowest 50%	11,869 or less	17,597 or less	6.8	5.9	313	410
Lowest 25%	5,565 or less	7,800 or less	0.5	0.7	46	90
Lowest 10%	2,212 or less	2,880 or less	[b]	[b]	9	25

1987 Income and Tax Data

Adjusted Gross Income Class	Total Individual Returns (thousands)	Total Adjusted Gross Income ($billions)	Percentage of Adjusted Gross Income	Average Tax Rate
Highest 5%	5,353	$ 713.4	25.6%	22.4%
Highest 10%	10,705	1,032.5	37.0	19.9
Highest 25%	26,763	1,705.4	61.2	16.7
Highest 50%	53,526	2,383.6	85.5	14.7
Lowest 50%	53,526	404.5	14.5	5.4
Lowest 25%	26,763	73.0	2.6	3.3
Lowest 10%	10,705	-13.1	—	—

[a] Data for 1987 are preliminary.
[b] Less than .07 percent.
Source: Tax Foundation computations based on Statistics of Income, Internal Revenue Service, U.S. Department of the Treasury.

Source: Tax Foundation, Washington, DC. News Release, June 13, 1989.

18 STATES HAVE AN AVERAGE COST OF $1.26 FOR EACH DOLLAR OF FEDERAL GRANTS RECEIVED

There's no free lunch for residents of 18 states whose aggregate Federal tax burden to support grant programs exceeds the amount of grants received by their respective state and local governments, according to Tax Foundation analysis. The 126 million residents of the "paying" states sent Uncle Sam $59.6 billion in taxes to support grant programs, while state-local governments received back $47.5 billion in grants. This figures out to an average $1.26 "cost" per $1.00 of aid.

Looked at another way, these states shouldered over 55 percent of the cost of the $108.7 billion in Federal grants in fiscal year 1988, latest available data, and received less than 44 percent of the payout.

The 120 million residents in the other 32 states and the District of Columbia, on the others hand, paid an average 80 cents in Federal taxes for each dollar of aid received by their state-local governments—$49.1 billion in Federal taxes for $61.3 billion in Federal grants.

Tax Foundation economists emphasize that these comparisons of Federal tax burdens for aid payments per $1.00 of assistance do not actually indicate the entire costs which state and local governments incur for obtaining Federal grants. With few exceptions, states must raise additional funds to administer the programs for which aid is granted and and must also allocate matching funds to qualify as recipients. Foundation researchers estimate that state and local jurisdictions must provide about 42 cents of matching funds for each $1.00 of Federal aid coming to them.

These tax burdens are estimated by the Tax Foundation, using a formula that measures the final geographic burden of taxes, as distinguished from the area of initial impact.

Federal Grants-In-Aid to State and Local Governments and Estimated Federal Tax Burden for Grants

Fiscal Year 1988

State	Grants[a] ($Millions)	Percent of Total Tax Burden	Estimated Tax Burden for Grants[b] ($Millions)	Tax Burden Per Dollar of Aid	
				Amount	Rank
Total	$108,724.7	100.00%	$108,724.7	$1.00	-
Alabama	1,667.9	1.22	1,324.7	.79	33
Alaska	579.8	.26	278.9	.48	50
Arizona	1,160.7	1.24	1,347.9	1.16	13
Arkansas	1,004.5	.66	719.4	.72	37
California	11,563.8	12.80	13,917.3	1.20	10
Colorado	1,199.6	1.31	1,421.7	1.19	12
Connecticut	1,542.1	2.03	2,210.4	1.43	5
Delaware	318.5	.32	342.8	1.08	16
Florida	3,415.2	5.17	5,616.8	1.64	1
Georgia	2,959.3	2.29	2,494.0	.84	30
Hawaii	477.2	.42	461.6	.97	21
Idaho	458.1	.29	310.0	.68	40
Illinois	4,669.4	5.23	5,684.5	1.22	8
Indiana	1,950.8	1.99	2,168.0	1.11	14
Iowa	1,199.2	.97	1,058.9	.88	26
Kansas	873.3	.95	1,035.7	1.19	11
Kentucky	1,750.7	1.10	1,199.3	.69	38
Louisiana	2,131.9	1.27	1,381.9	.65	43
Maine	664.7	.42	455.1	.68	39
Maryland	2,004.2	2.24	2,435.5	1.22	9
Massachusetts	3,327.6	3.10	3,368.8	1.01	18
Michigan	4,240.6	3.86	4,196.0	.99	19
Minnesota	2,117.4	1.78	1,936.4	.91	24
Mississippi	1,304.6	.63	680.1	.52	46
Missouri	1,938.1	1.96	2,130.9	1.10	15
Montana	504.5	.24	262.9	.52	47
Nebraska	711.5	.56	611.3	.86	28
Nevada	322.8	.45	490.2	1.52	2
New Hampshire	397.3	.53	576.8	1.45	4
New Jersey	3,327.5	4.58	4,979.9	1.50	3
New Mexico	726.1	.44	479.9	.66	42
New York	12,404.2	8.80	9,571.3	.77	34
North Carolina	2,296.2	2.19	2,383.8	1.04	17
North Dakota	451.3	.22	235.0	.52	48
Ohio	4,693.1	4.20	4,570.2	.97	20
Oklahoma	1,402.2	1.04	1,133.3	.81	32
Oregon	1,110.9	.98	1,064.5	.96	22
Pennsylvania	5,790.4	4.85	5,273.6	.91	25
Rhode Island	643.5	.43	469.4	.73	36
South Carolina	1,351.3	1.03	1,123.8	.83	31
South Dakota	439.5	.21	225.8	.51	49
Tennessee	2,084.4	1.64	1,779.6	.85	29
Texas	5,162.2	6.20	6,742.9	1.31	7
Utah	683.7	.46	503.4	.74	35
Vermont	323.5	.20	218.2	.67	41
Virginia	1,956.8	2.54	2,757.3	1.41	6
Washington	2,131.4	1.86	2,020.0	.95	23
West Virginia	1,054.7	.51	556.1	.53	45
Wisconsin	2,226.9	1.80	1,961.7	.88	27
Wyoming	273.8	.16	174.5	.64	44
District of Columbia	1,615.1	.35	380.6	.24	51

[a] Excludes shared revenues and payments in lieu of taxes; includes trust fund aid.

[b] The tax burden for grants is assumed to equal grant payments.

Soure: Tax Foundation computations based on data from the Treasury Department and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Source: Tax Foundation, Washington DC 20025 (One Thomas Circle, NW - Suite 500). Tax Features, April 1989, P.4.

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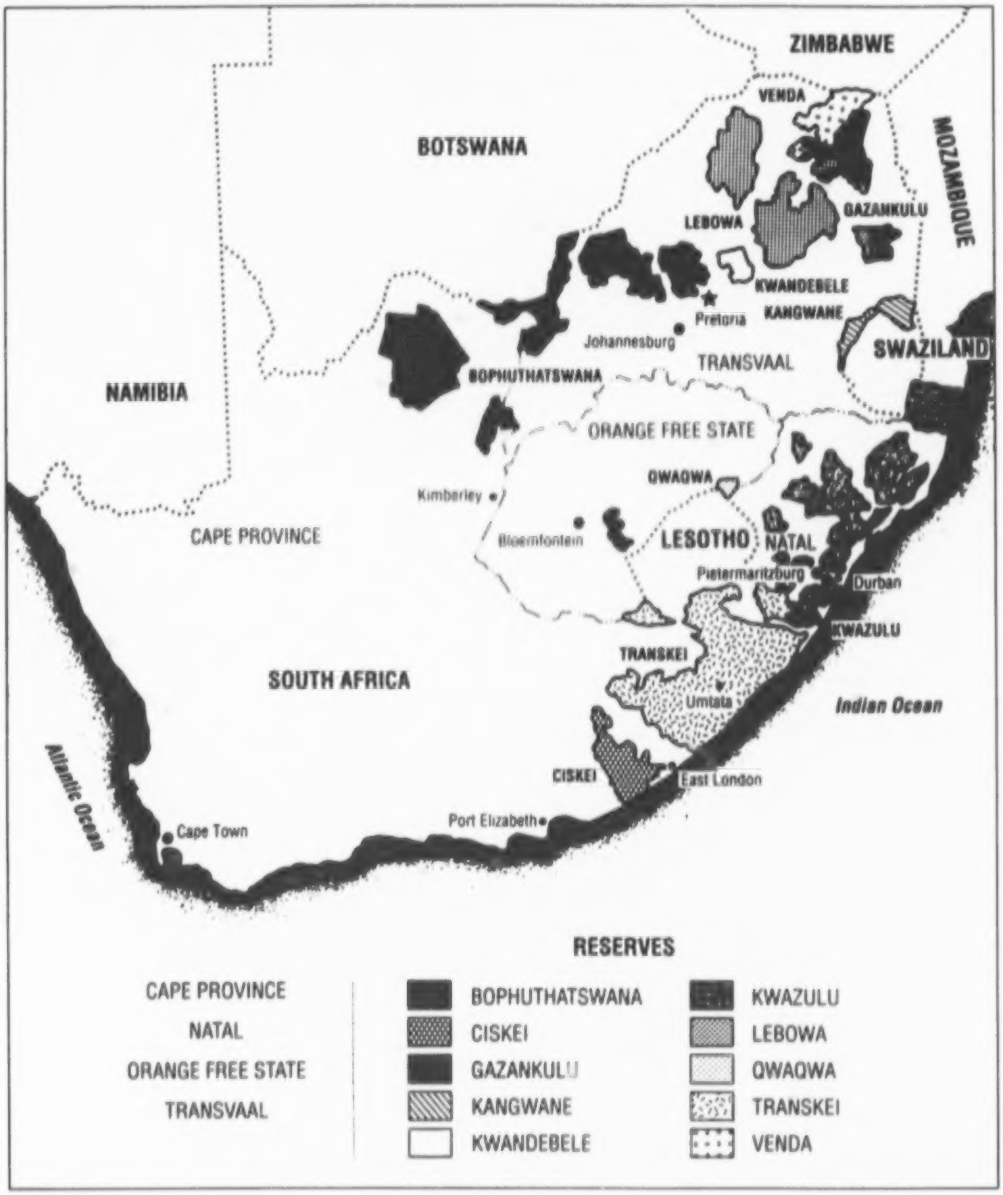
THE RESERVES IN THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA


ZIMBABWE
VENDA
BOTSWANA
MOZAMBIQUE
LEBOWA
GAZANKULU
KWANDEBELE
KANGWANE
Pretoria
Johannesburg
TRANSVAAL
SWAZILAND
NAMIBIA
BOPHUTHATSWANA
ORANGE FREE STATE
QWAQWA
Kimberley
CAPE PROVINCE
Bloemfontein
LESOTHO
NATAL
Pietermaritzburg
Durban
KWAZULU
TRANSKEI
Umtata
SOUTH AFRICA
Indian Ocean
Atlantic Ocean
CISKEI
East London
Port Elizabeth
Cape Town
RESERVES
CAPE PROVINCE
NATAL
ORANGE FREE STATE
TRANSVAAL
BOPHUTHATSWANA
CISKEI
GAZANKULU
KANGWANE
KWANDEBELE
KWAZULU
LEBOWA
QWAQWA
TRANSKEI
VENDA

Source: The Global Hunger Project. The Hunger Project Papers. Number 7, May 1989. Uprooting Poverty in South Africa. Reprinted with permission.

PROFILES

U.S. and Japan Agree to Monitor Pacific Fish Catch

The United States and Japan have reached an agreement to effectively monitor and control the movement of the Japanese fishing fleet in the North Pacific.

Incidental catches of marine mammals, sea birds, and salmon have posed a threat to the marine environment and the West Coast U.S. fishing industry.

"This agreement achieves a real commitment, rather than a vague promise, that major advances in Japanese fleet monitoring and enforcement will take place on a multi-year basis," Commerce Secretary Robert Mosbacher said.

The agreement, confirmed by an exchange of letters between Commerce and State Department negotiators and the Japan Fishing Agency, calls for the testing of transmitters of Japanese Government vessels in the North Pacific in 1989 and, if effective, their placement on a substantial number of fishing vessels in 1990. The agreement also calls for the placement of Japanese and American observers on Japanese vessels so that their location during the fishing season can be determined.

Secretary Mosbacher said, "If this progress is reflected in results, we will have achieved an important balance between our fishing trading relationship and our environmental responsibilities."

The driftnets, which can be up to 30 miles long, trap not only squid, but seals, sea birds, and fish, including salmon spawned in U.S. and Canadian waters. There are about 460 vessels in the Japanese driftnet fleet.

The Driftnet Act of 1987 gave the Commerce Secretary until June 29 to reach an agreement. Without such an agreement, Japan could have been "certified," an action that could have led to an embargo on U.S. fishery imports from Japan.

Source: Business America,
July 3, 1989. p. 11.

Telltale Prints Point to Polluters

Lead -- the pollutant that wreaks havoc in the body and incurs astronomical health care costs -- can no longer go about its dirty work anonymously.

Because each geologic source of lead is chemically unique, lead leaves behind a telltale fingerprint that enables scientists to trace lead pollution to its point of origin.

Russell Flegal, a research geo-chemist at the University of California, Santa Cruz, is taking advantage of lead's unusual traceability and, in two of the Great Lakes, has been able to assign national responsibility for lead pollution.

Flegal suggests that, because lead pollution and the precursors of acid rain are often generated by the same sources and transported via identical routes, the lead fingerprint can be used to point out which regions contribute most heavily to the acid rain problem.

"We can use these lead fingerprints as tracers for sources of acid rain," he says.

During the summer of 1987, Flegal and colleagues from the U.S. and Canada sampled surface water from 18 sites on Lakes Erie and Ontario. They measured the amount of lead in the lakes and identified the sources of lead pollution using an analytical technique called mass spectrometry.

"We can actually show that western Lake Ontario is being contaminated with industrial leads primarily from Canada and that the southern half of Lake Erie is being contaminated with industrial leads primarily from the U.S.," Flegal says.

The central portions of both lakes are polluted by a mixture of leads from both countries.

Industrial lead comes from auto emissions, waste incineration, miscellaneous industrial processes, and coal combustion. In the U.S. alone, coal burning power plants produce 800 metric tons of lead each year. Non-industrial lead, a much less significant source of lead pollution, is released to the environment by geological activities, including volcanic eruptions.

Flegal says that air pollution is the major route by which lead enters the lakes. And, because prevailing winds in the region blow from west to east, he says that the most significant points of origin are heavily populated and industrialized cities.

Flegal suggests that, because coal combustion is a major source of both lead and the precursors of acid rain, much of the lead and most of the acid rain are produced by the same sources and enter the lake by similar routes.

This indicates that the U.S. and Canada share responsibility for the acid rain problem in Lakes Erie and Ontario.

Source: University of California UC Clip Sheet. May 9, 1989.

WIDE VARIATION IN FOOD PRICES AMONG WORLD CAPITALS, NOVEMBER 1988.

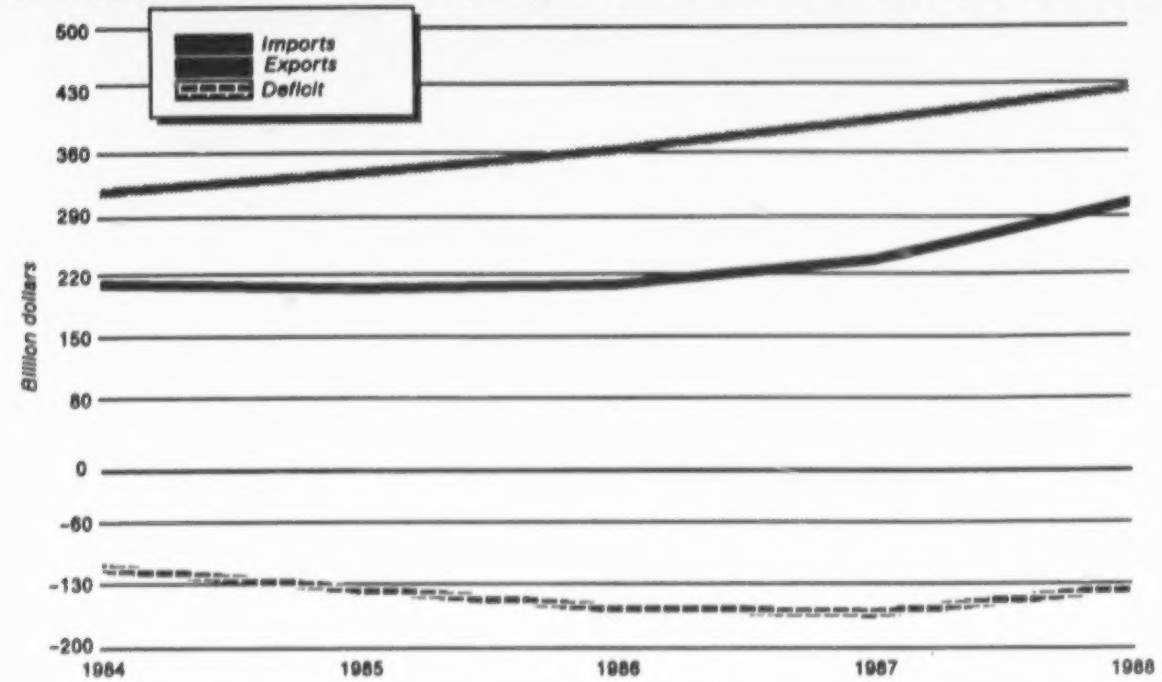
Item	Capital city							
	Brasilia	Pretoria	Mexico City	Buenos Aires	Ottawa	Canberra	Bonn	Washington
	Dollars per pound							
Sirloin steak[2]	1.25	2.54	2.61	2.16	4.09	4.11	5.00	4.86
Pork roast[2]	2.46	1.29	2.57	2.09	2.44	1.89	2.38	3.67
Whole broilers	0.68	0.86	0.93	1.05	1.24	1.69	1.09	0.85
Cheese[3]	2.79	1.57	3.12	3.25	4.14	2.54	3.67	3.52
Potatoes	0.13	0.24	0.44	0.18	0.20	0.43	0.18	0.35
Apples	0.70	0.50	0.54	0.65	0.89	0.83	0.59	1.28
Oranges	0.20	0.21	0.14	0.58	0.81[4]	0.58	0.74	0.53
Flour	0.23	0.22	0.15	0.33	0.44	0.46	0.24	0.29
Rice	0.25	0.40	0.19	0.54	0.87	0.43	0.95	0.61
Sugar	0.20	0.23	0.15	0.47	0.17	0.34	0.49	0.45
Coffee	1.21	4.01	1.56	3.18	3.50	5.74	4.87	3.38
	Dollars per quart							
Whole milk	0.37	0.44	0.29	0.50	1.02	0.62	0.60	0.62
Cooking oil	0.51	1.20	0.91	2.56	1.80	1.72	0.85	2.56
	London	Paris	Rome	Madrid	Seoul	Bern[5]	Stockholm	Tokyo
	Dollars per pound							
Sirloin steak[2]	6.70	5.69	5.54	5.52	6.72	14.61	11.01	25.88
Pork roast[2]	2.73	3.43	3.81	3.96	2.00	5.08	10.43	6.21
Whole broilers	1.37	2.23	1.71	1.48	1.33	1.75	2.79	2.90
Cheese[3]	2.71	3.05	4.11	5.07	5.30	5.41	4.21	4.19
Potatoes	0.22	0.34	0.24	0.15	0.41	0.29	0.32	1.21
Apples	0.71	0.66	0.69	0.52	1.12	0.90	1.03	1.00
Oranges	1.04	0.74	0.69	0.44	0.61	0.66	0.89	1.32
Flour	0.29	0.44	0.25	0.31	0.18	0.57	0.54	0.69
Rice	0.72	1.10	0.76	0.73	0.72	1.18	1.19	1.37
Sugar	0.44	0.51	0.47	0.47	0.39	0.39	0.53	0.89
Coffee	4.55	3.54	4.00	2.19	5.10	4.21	4.26	11.70
	Dollars per quart							
Whole milk	0.72	0.74	0.87	0.79	0.96	1.05	0.79	1.44
Cooking oil	1.41	1.71	0.91	1.79	1.66	2.86	7.49	2.01

[1] Partial listing of surveyed items. Survey conducted in November 1988 by U.S. agricultural counselors or attaches. Prices are averages from randomly sampled supermarkets within each capital's metropolitan area. Exchange rates used are those that were in effect at the time the survey was conducted. [2] Boneless. [3] Cheddar or Emmenthaler. [4] May 1988 price. [5] Survey conducted in September 1988.

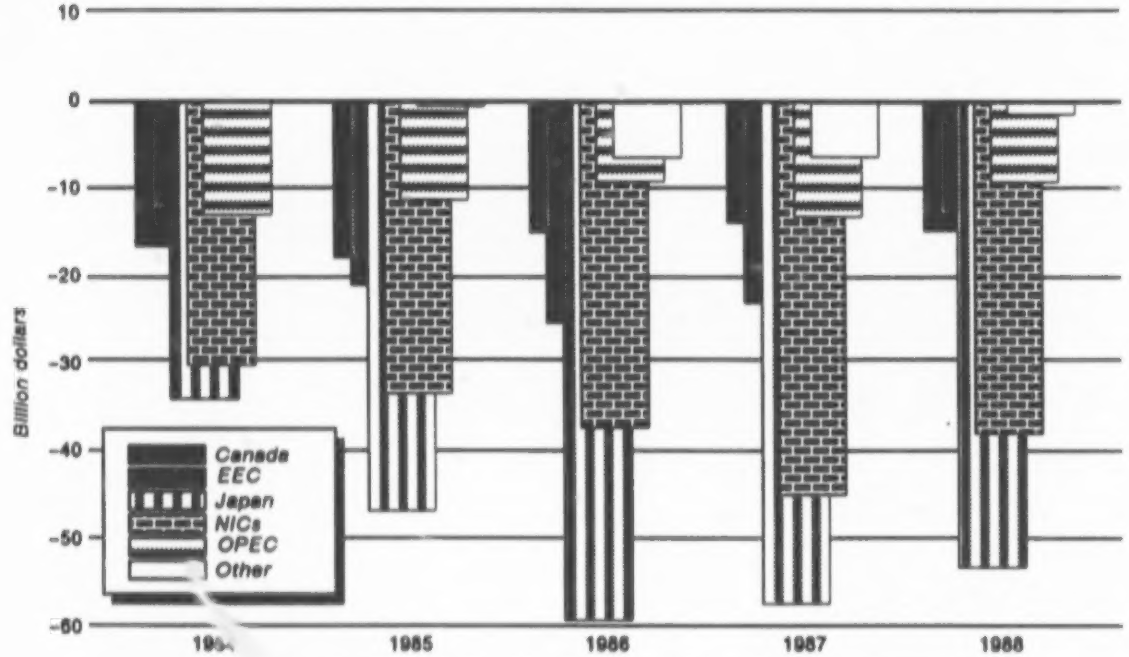
Source: *World Production and Trade*, WR 1-89, Foreign Agricultural Service, USDA, January 5, 1989.
Contact: Lewrene Glaser (202) 786-3313.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. National Food Review, April -June 1989. P. 14.

U.S. Merchandise Exports, Imports, and Trade Deficit, 1984-1988



U.S. Merchandise Trade Balance By Partner, 1984-1988



NICs = Newly Industrialized Countries: Brazil, Hong Kong, Mexico, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan

EEC = European Economic Community: W. Germany, UK, France, Italy, Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, Denmark, Ireland, Greece. Prior to the accession of Spain and Portugal to the EEC on January 1, 1986, the EC had 10 members. Data for 1984 and 1985 omit Spain and Portugal.

OPEC = see next page

Source: U.S. International Trade Commission.
International Economic Review. April 1989. P.2.

continued →

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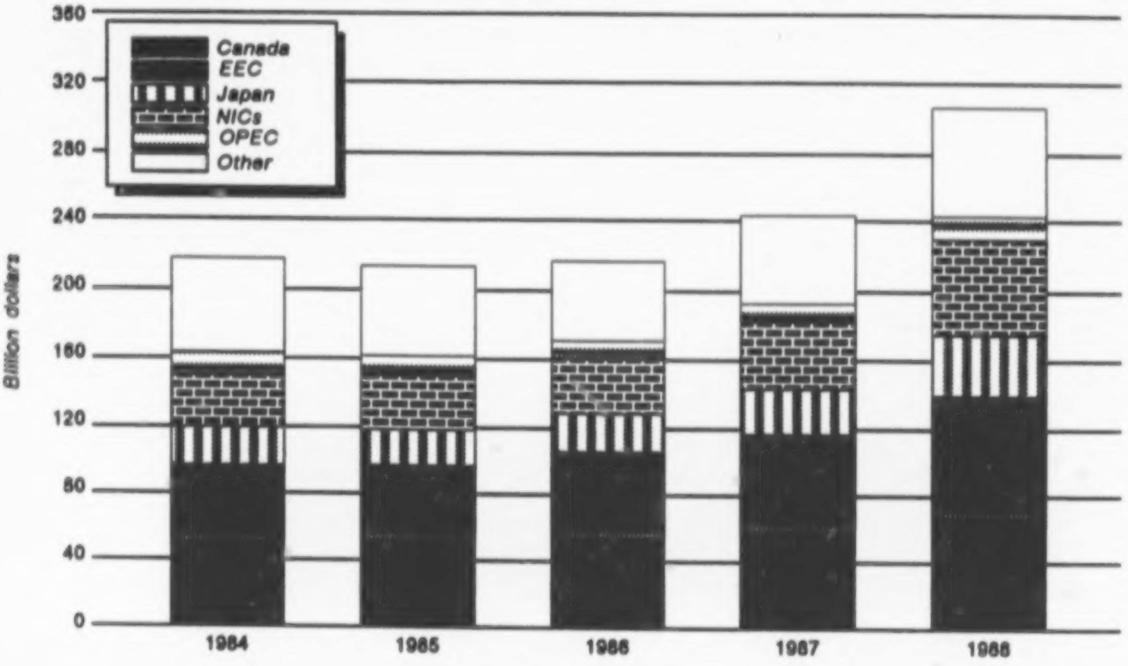
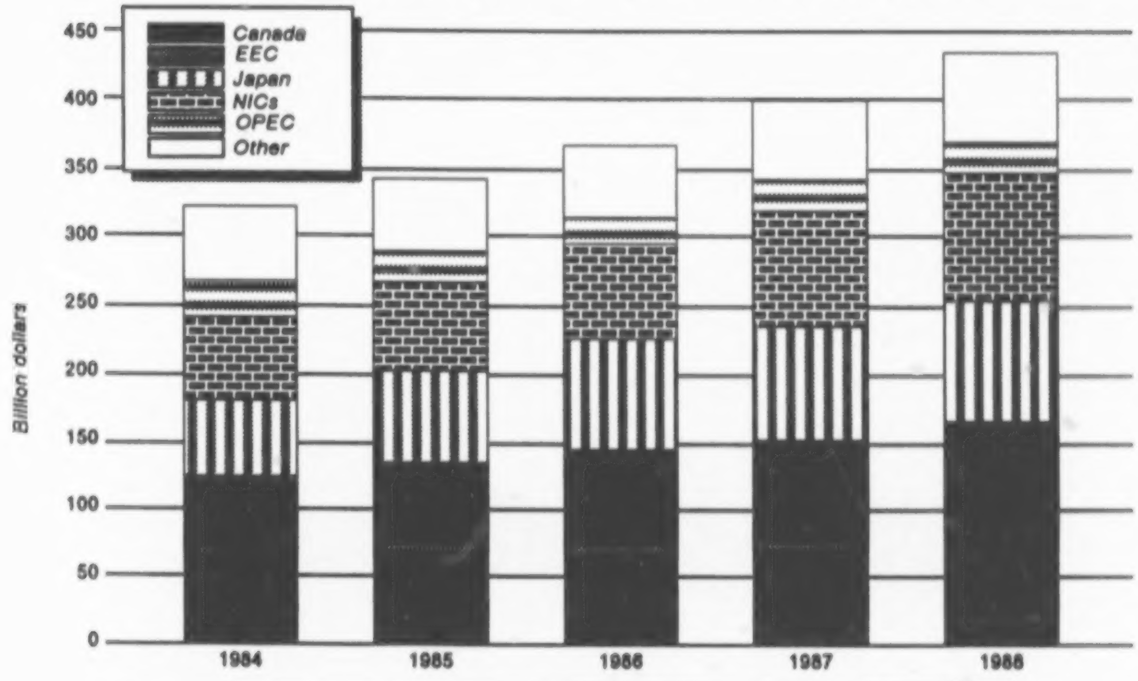
Total U.S. Exports By Partner, 1984-1988



Total U.S. Imports By Partner, 1984-1988



OPEC = Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries: Algeria, Ecuador, Gabon, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Nigeria, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, the U.A.E., and Venezuela.

EEC = see preceding page.

NICs = see preceding page.

Source: U.S. International Trade Commission. International Economic Review. April 1989. P.3.

U.S. 1988 Merchandise Exports, Imports, And Trade Balances

Top 25 U.S. Markets
U.S. Domestic and Foreign Merchandise Exports, 1988
(f.a.s. Value)

		$ billions
	Total Exports	**322.2**
1.	Canada	70.9
2.	Japan	37.7
3.	Mexico	20.6
4.	United Kingdom	18.4
5.	West Germany	14.3
6.	Taiwan	12.1
7.	South Korea	11.3
8.	Netherlands	10.1
9.	France	10.1
10.	Belgium-Luxembourg	7.4
11.	Australia	7.0
12.	Italy	6.8
13.	Singapore	5.8
14.	Hong Kong	5.7
15.	China	5.0
16.	Venezuela	4.6
17.	Brazil	4.3
18.	Spain	4.2
19.	Switzerland	4.2
20.	Saudi Arabia	3.8
21.	Israel	3.2
22.	U.S.S.R.	2.8
23.	Sweden	2.7
24.	India	2.5
25.	Egypt	2.3

Leading U.S. Suppliers
U.S. General Merchandise Imports, 1988
(Customs Value)

		$ billions
	Total Imports	**440.9**
1.	Japan	89.8
2.	Canada	80.9
3.	West Germany	26.5
4.	Taiwan	24.8
5.	Mexico	23.3
6.	South Korea	20.2
7.	United Kingdom	18.0
8.	France	12.2
9.	Italy	11.6
10.	Hong Kong	10.2
11.	Brazil	9.3
12.	China	8.5
13.	Singapore	8.0
14.	Saudi Arabia	5.6
15.	Venezuela	5.2
16.	Sweden	5.0
17.	Switzerland	4.6
18.	Netherlands	4.6
19.	Belgium-Luxembourg	4.5
20.	Malaysia	3.7
21.	Australia	3.5
22.	Nigeria	3.3
23.	Thailand	3.2
24.	Spain	3.2
25.	Indonesia	3.2

U.S. Trade Balances, 1988
Listing of U.S. Merchandise Trade Balances
General Imports, Customs Value; Domestic and Foreign Exports, f.a.s. Value

	U.S. Surplus Positions	$ billions		U.S. Deficit Positions	$ billions
				Total	**−118.7**
1.	Netherlands	+5.5	1.	Japan	−52.1
2.	Australia	+3.4	2.	Taiwan	−12.7
3.	Belgium-Luxembourg	+2.9	3.	West Germany	−12.2
4.	U.S.S.R	+2.2	4.	Canada	−10.1
5.	Egypt	+2.1	5.	South Korea	−8.9
6.	Spain	+1.0	6.	Brazil	−5.0
7.	Turkey	+0.9	7.	Italy	−4.8
8.	Ireland	+0.8	8.	Hong Kong	−4.6
9.	Pakistan	+0.6	9.	China	−3.5
10.	Panama	+0.4	10.	Nigeria	−2.9
11.	United Kingdom	+0.4	11.	Mexico	−2.6
12.	Jordan	+0.4	12.	Sweden	−2.3
13.	Morocco	+0.3	13.	Singapore	−2.2
14.	Bahamas	+0.3	14.	Indonesia	−2.1
15.	Jamaica	+0.3	15.	France	−2.1
16.	Bermuda	+0.3	16.	Saudi Arabia	−1.8
17.	French Guiana	+0.3	17.	Malaysia	−1.6
18.	Israel	+0.3	18.	Thailand	−1.3
19.	Kuwait	+0.2	19.	Angola	−1.1
20.	Leeward & Windward Is.	+0.2	20.	Algeria	−1.1
21.	El Salvador	+0.2	21.	Philippines	−0.8
22.	Bahrain	+0.2	22.	Denmark	−0.7
23.	South Africa	+0.2	23.	Venezuela	−0.6
24.	Guatemala	+0.2	24.	Ecuador	−0.5
25.	Paraguay	+0.2	25.	Macao	−0.5

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Business America, April 10, 1989.

GATT AND MULTILATERAL TRADE NEGOTIATIONS

The following text is reprinted in full from the Department of State's GIST (June 1989) which the Department describes as "A quick reference aid on U.S. foreign relations, not a comprehensive policy statement."

Background: The US has been a party to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) since its inception in 1948. In January 1989, 97 countries, accounting for more than four-fifths of world trade, were Contracting Parties, as members are called. Another 28 countries maintain a de facto "application" of the GATT.
The GATT, the principal multilateral instrument through which the US seeks to improve the world trading system, is both a code of rules and a forum in which negotiations and other trade discussions take place. It is intended to play a major role in the settlement of trade disagreements between member countries. Negotiations of the latest round began in Punta del Este, Uruguay, in 1986 and are continuing in Geneva, Switzerland. Known as the Uruguay Round, they are scheduled to end in December 1990.

Over the past four decades, the GATT's activities have evolved in response to major changes in the world economy. These have included shifts in relative economic strengths of important countries or groups of countries, the formation of the European Community, the emergence of developing countries as a significant factor in international trade, the trend toward regional or preferential economic groups, and a shift in commerce from traditional merchandise to an increasing volume of trade in services.

GATT defined: Although the GATT is a long and complicated document, it is based on a few fundamental principles and aims.

The first principle, embodied in the most-favored-nation clause, is that trade must be conducted on a nondiscriminatory basis. All GATT members are bound to grant to each other treatment as favorable as they give to any country in the application and administration of import and export duties and charges. Thus, no country may give special trading advantages to another; all are on an equal basis and share the benefits of any reductions in trade barriers. Exceptions to this basic rule are allowed only under certain special circumstances.

A second principle is that, to the maximum extent possible, protection should be given to domestic industries only through the customs tariff and not through other measures. This rule is designed to make the extent of protection clear and to make competition possible.

A third basic principle is a general prohibition of quantitative restrictions or quotas. When the GATT was established, widespread quantitative restrictions posed the single greatest obstacle to international trade. Today, import quotas are less widespread, although agriculture, textiles, steel, and other sectors have become subject to trade restrictions in the form of so-called "voluntary" export restraint agreements that operate outside the GATT system.

Multilateral trade negotiations: The substantial reduction of tariffs and other barriers to trade, a principal aim of the GATT, has been the goal of seven multilateral trade negotiations prior to the Uruguay Round. Past rounds, including the Tokyo Round completed in 1979, concentrated on tariff reductions. The Tokyo Round, however, also produced agreement for the first time on rules of conduct in nontariff areas. Particularly significant were the additions of agreements known as "codes" on subsidies and countervailing duties, technical barriers to trade (standards), import licensing procedures, antidumping, trade in bovine meat, dairy products, civil aircraft, government procurement, and customs valuation. Committees were established to administer each code.

Uruguay Round: In the face of a dramatically changed world trading environment, the US and the other GATT Contracting Parties have taken the initiative to renew and strengthen GATT, to make it relevant to modern realities. The Uruguay Round is the most comprehensive and complex of all GATT trade negotiating rounds. We hope to bring agricultural trade, services, trade related to intellectual property, and trade related to investment measures under GATT discipline; to reform the GATT dispute settlement mechanism; and to encourage developing countries to lessen protection and adopt free trade principles.

The first phase of the negotiations ended with a midterm review (convened in Montreal in December 1988 and in Geneva in April 1989) that ratified 15 "framework texts" on specific negotiating subjects to guide the remainder of the round. Final results of the review met all US requirements for successful continuation of the round and indicate commitment among all trading nations to the Uruguay Round goals. The Uruguay Round is entering the final phase of negotiations. The US intends to present proposals in key negotiating groups before the end of 1989 and to pursue serious negotiations in the last year of the round.

US goals: The US believes that realistic goals for the Uruguay Round are:

-- Agreement on long-term, market-oriented reforms of agricultural policies that will permit the gradual dismantling of trade-distorting subsidies and import barriers;

-- Improvements in the codes on Standards, Government Procurement, and Subsidies developed in the Tokyo Round;

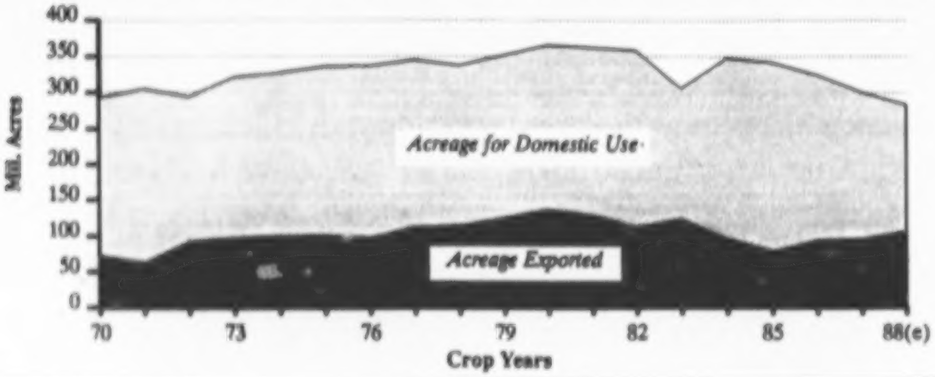
-- Institutional improvements in the GATT, including GATT surveillance of trade measures and improvements in dispute-settlement procedures;

-- Agreement on principles governing trade in services and common standards for protection of intellectual property and trade-related investment matters; and

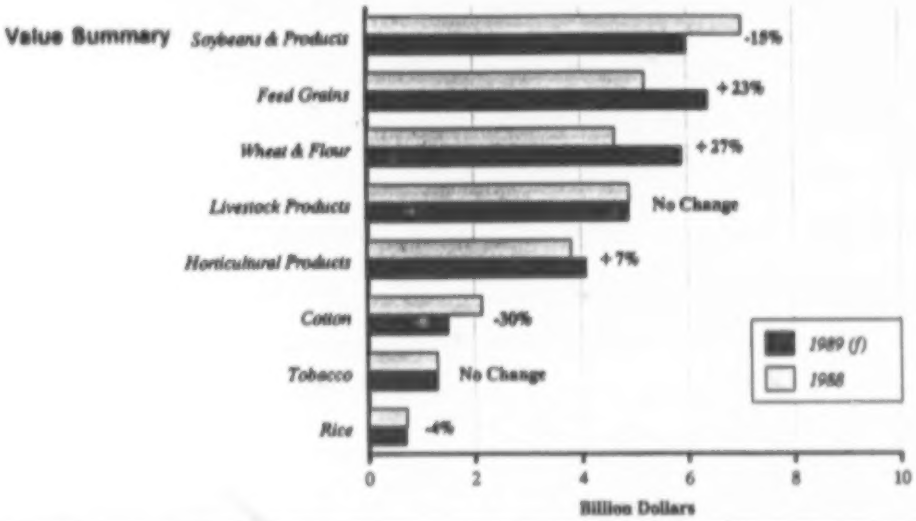
-- Greater integration of developing countries into the GATT system. ◆

THE IMPORTANCE OF U.S. AGRICULTURAL EXPORTS

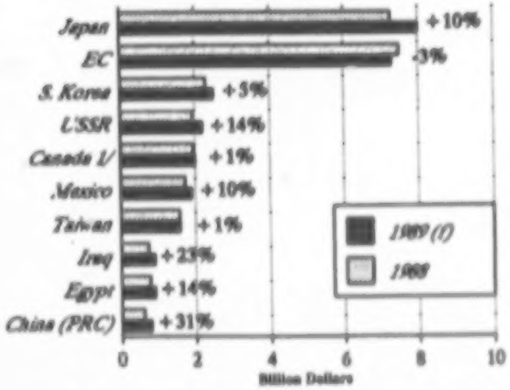
Nearly Two-Fifths of Harvested Acreage Went to Export Market in 1988



U.S. Agricultural Exports by Commodity Groups

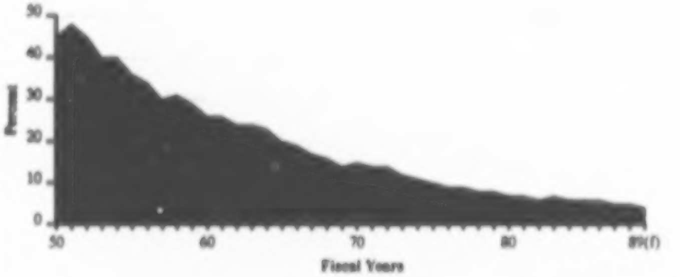


Japan Expected To Replace EC as Top U.S. Farm Export Market in 1989



1/ U.S. agricultural exports to Canada are under-reported by about $1 billion a year and officially recognized by both governments.

In contrast to the importance of agricultural exports to the U.S., agriculture's share of U.S. imports has fallen steadily since the 1950's.



Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Foreign Agricultural Service. Handbook No. 683. Desk Reference Guide to U.S. Agricultural Trade. Pp. 1,6,9,&17.

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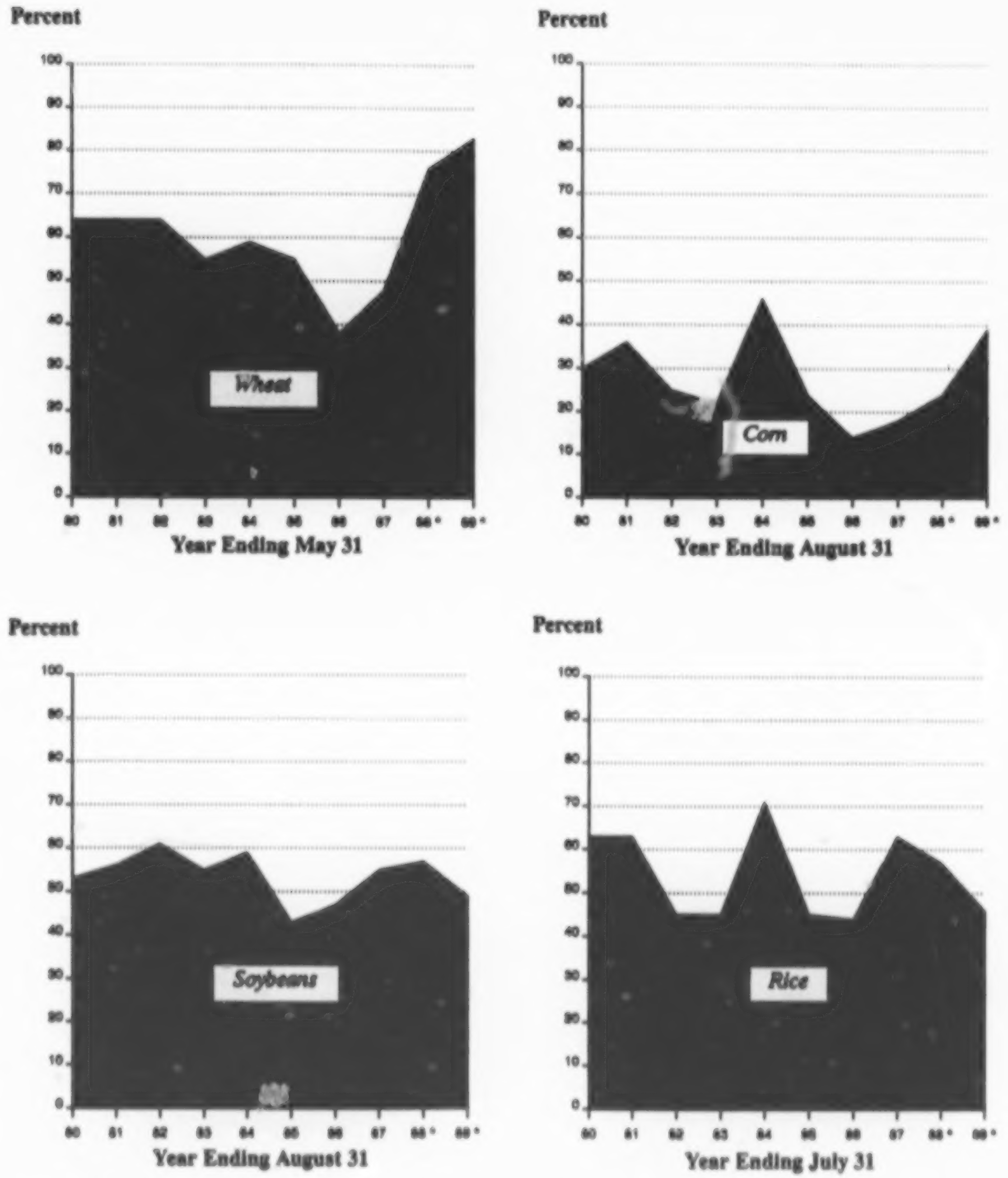
AGRICULTURAL EXPORTS continued

A Large Percentage of Major Crops Is Exported



* 1988 data are preliminary estimates and 1989 data are projections; both are from "World Agricultural Supply and Demand Estimates" (WASDE #226).

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Foreign Agricultural Service. Handbook No. 683. Desk Reference Guide to U.S. Agricultural Trade. P.2.

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THE LEADING STATES OF AGRICULTURAL EXPORTS

Ranked by Value of Agricultural Exports[1]

	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th
Fiscal 1987								
All ag product exports[2] U.S. total: $27.9 billion	California **$2.84 bil.**	Iowa **$2.26 bil.**	Illinois **$2.12 bil.**	Nebraska **$1.58 bil.**	Texas **$1.82 bil.**	Kansas **$1.51 bil.**	Minnesota **$1.37 bil.**	Indiana **$1.01 bil.**
Fiscal 1988								
All ag product exports[2] U.S. total: $35.3 billion	California **$3.39 bil.**	Iowa **$2.86 bil.**	Illinois **$2.62 bil.**	Kansas **$2.33 bil.**	Texas **$2.25 bil.**	Nebraska **$2.12 bil.**	Minnesota **$1.81 bil.**	Indiana **$1.38 bil.**
Soybean & product exports U.S. total: $6.92 billion	Iowa **$1.25 bil.**	Illinois **$1.17 bil.**	Minnesota **$658 mil.**	Indiana **$617 mil.**	Missouri **$581 mil.**	Ohio **$535 mil.**	Nebraska **$296 mil.**	Arkansas **$252 mil.**
Feed grain & product exports U.S. total: $6.23 billion	Iowa **$1.07 bil.**	Illinois **$993 mil.**	Nebraska **$761 mil.**	Minnesota **$547 mil.**	Indiana **$517 mil.**	Kansas **$355 mil.**	Ohio **$297 mil.**	Wisconsin **$274 mil.**
Wheat & product exports U.S. total: $4.67 billion	Kansas **$906 mil.**	No. Dakota **$539 mil.**	Oklahoma **$349 mil.**	Montana **$342 mil.**	Washington **$322 mil.**	Texas **$265 mil.**	Colorado **$259 mil.**	South Dakota **$240 mil.**
Live animal & meat exports[3] U.S. total: $2.25 billion	Kansas **$294 mil.**	Texas **$286 mil.**	Nebraska **$279 mil.**	Kentucky **$217 mil.**	Iowa **$185 mil.**	Colorado **$103 mil.**	Illinois **$87 mil.**	California **$81 mil.**
Cotton & linter exports U.S. total: $2.15 billion	Texas **$679 mil.**	California **$431 mil.**	Mississippi **$256 mil.**	Arizona **$153 mil.**	Louisiana **$145 mil.**	Arkansas **$132 mil.**	Tennessee **$95 mil.**	Alabama **$60 mil.**
Hide & skin exports U.S. total: $1.84 billion	Kansas **$305 mil.**	Texas **$285 mil.**	Nebraska **$278 mil.**	Iowa **$108 mil.**	Colorado **$103 mil.**	Wisconsin **$69 mil.**	Illinois **$68 mil.**	California **$66 mil.**
Fruit & preparation exports U.S. total: $1.71 billion	California **$889 mil.**	Florida **$377 mil.**	Washington **$150 mil.**	Oregon **$53 mil.**	Michigan **$49 mil.**	Arizona **$38 mil.**	Texas **$32 mil.**	New York **$28 mil.**
Unmanufactured tobacco exports U.S. total: $1.30 billion	North Carolina **$589 mil.**	Kentucky **$242 mil.**	South Carolina **$120 mil.**	Virginia **$95 mil.**	Georgia **$92 mil.**	Tennessee **$75 mil.**	Connecticut **$19 mil.**	Florida **$18 mil.**
Vegetable & preparation exports U.S. total: $1.28 billion	California **$570 mil.**	Washington **$126 mil.**	Wisconsin **$74 mil.**	Michigan **$64 mil.**	Idaho **$60 mil.**	Minnesota **$59 mil.**	Oregon **$54 mil.**	Florida **$42 mil.**
Feed & fodder exports U.S. total: $873 million	Iowa **$89 mil.**	Minnesota **$76 mil.**	Nebraska **$74 mil.**	Illinois **$73 mil.**	Florida **$65 mil.**	California **$49 mil.**	Kansas **$41 mil.**	North Dakota **$40 mil.**
Tree nut exports U.S total: $780 million	California **$745 mil.**	Hawaii **$14.9 mil.**	Oregon **$11.8 mil.**	Georgia **$3.4 mil.**	Texas **$1.2 mil.**	New Mexico **$0.7 mil.**	Alabama **$0.7 mil.**	Louisiana **$0.6 mil.**
Rice exports U.S. total: $731 million	Arkansas **$332 mil.**	Louisiana **$108 mil.**	Texas **$105 mil.**	California **$96 mil.**	Mississippi **$67 mil.**	Missouri **$23 mil.**	—	—
Poultry & product exports U.S. total: $647 million	Arkansas **$84 mil.**	Georgia **$77 mil.**	Alabama **$59 mil.**	North Carolina **$58 mil.**	California **$43 mil.**	Indiana **$43 mil.**	Mississippi **$35 mil.**	Texas **$32 mil.**
Dairy product exports U.S. total: $535 million	Wisconsin **$141 mil.**	California **$87 mil.**	Minnesota **$63 mil.**	New York **$32 mil.**	Pennsylvania **$27 mil.**	Iowa **$18 mil.**	Washington **$17 mil.**	Missouri **$14 mil.**

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[1] State origins of exports are not monitored as products move into export channels. The above statistics are estimates based primarily on each state's contribution to U.S. production or marketings of individual commodities during the fiscal year (fiscal 1988: Oct. 1, 1987-Sept. 30, 1988). Stock levels within states, estimates of how much feed goes to livestock, and other available data are used to adjust these figures. [2] Includes commodities not listed in this table. [3] Includes breed and race horses, excludes poultry.

Data were provided by economist Steve Milmoe of the Commodity Economics Division, Economic Research Service.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture.
Farmline, July 1989, P.15.

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CHILD CARE COSTS ESTIMATED AT $14 BILLION IN 1986, CENSUS BUREAU SURVEY SHOWS

An estimated $14 billion was spent on care for children under age 15 in 1986 by families where the child's mother was employed, according to a survey by the Commerce Department's Census Bureau.

Provisional data from the Survey of Income and Program Participation conducted from September to November 1986 indicate that 20 million of the children were age 5 to 14, and 70 percent of them were in kindergarten or grade school while their mothers were working.

Most of the 9 million preschool children were cared for outside their home during the hours their mothers worked, four out of 10 of them usually in someone else's home. Another 21 percent attended a formal child care facility (day or group care center, nursery, or preschool).

The proportion of preschoolers cared for in someone else's home increased from 37 percent to 41 percent between this survey and the last child care survey in December 1984-March 1985. A drop from 9 percent to 6 percent in nursery school attendance between the surveys may reflect seasonal variation in the opening of such schools late in September 1986.

The Census Bureau notes that although the changes between the surveys appear small, they mask considerable variability in child care arrangements over the course of a year, especially for school-age children. For instance, only 22 percent of children aged 5 to 14 were reported to be in school during their mothers' working hours in August 1986, while the average from September to November was 70 percent.

In August, parental care accounted for one-fifth of all arrangements for school-age children compared with one-tenth in the fall. Also, 13 percent were left to their own supervision in the summer compared with 5 percent in the fall.

Care in a nonrelative's home accounted for 30 percent of all arrangements for children under age five in the fall of 1986 among families with an average monthly income over $3,750 (about $45,000 or more per year). Such arrangements were made by only 16 percent of families with monthly incomes under $1,250. Care in a nonrelative's home also was reported more frequently by families above the poverty level than by families below the poverty level.

Formal child care facilities were used in similar proportions by both the highest and lowest income groups.

About one-third of the 18.2 million employed women with children under age 15 reported making weekly cash payments for child care. A greater proportion of women above the poverty line made weekly cash payments (33 percent) than did women below the poverty line (21 percent).

The survey shows that the average child care cost of $45 a week for the 5.8 million women reporting such payments was 6 percent of their monthly family income. Child care costs of $32 a week paid by women in poverty was 22 percent of their monthly family income. The $58 paid by families with monthly incomes over $3,750 was 4 percent of their income. Those with incomes under $1,250 paid $35 weekly, or 18 percent of their monthly income.

The Census Bureau advises that these estimates could change when they are combined with an additional panel of interviews for the same reference period. A report to be published later will include final statistics for 1986 and 1987.

This news release presents data from two national samples of the Survey of Income and Program Participation. The data are subject to various errors such as undercoverage of the population, processing errors, and respondent reporting errors. Certain measures, such as quality control programs, are implemented to reduce these errors. In addition, if the surveys were repeated with different samples of respondents, the results would vary from sample to sample. The results in this news release have been tested to conform to the bureau's statistical standards. Caution should be used when comparing these data to other data sets. ❖

Source: Bureau of the Census. Release CB89-119, July 27, 1989. (Three tables, not reproduced here, were part of this Release.)

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Monthly abbreviations are: S, O, N, D, Ja, F, Mr, Ap, My, Je. A reference of S5 means September issue, page 5. PROFILES pages are indexed, and so, also are the individual items in them. A PROFILES (P) item on drug use in the November issue, page 18 would be indexed DRUGS: Use (P), N18, OPINION pages (O) are indexed and so are the items in them.

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FOR THE RECORD: U.S. ECONOMIC AND MILITARY ASSISTANCE, 1946-1988

(U.S.FISCAL YEARS - MILLIONS OF DOLLARS)

U.S.OVERSEAS LOANS AND GRANTS-OBLIGATIONS AND LOAN AUTHORIZATIONS

PROGRAM	POST-WAR RELIEF PERIOD 1946-48	MARSHALL PLAN PERIOD 1949-52	MUTUAL SECURITY ACT PERIOD 1953-61	FOREIGN ASSISTANCE ACT PERIOD 1962-84	1985	1986	1987	1988	TOTAL FAA PERIOD 1962-88	TOTAL LOANS AND GRANTS 1946-88 **	PRINCIPAL REPAY-MENTS 1946-88	OUT-STANDING LOAN BALANCES 1946-88 **
I.ECON. ASSIST.-TOTAL...	12,482	18,634	24,053	123,207	12,327	10,786	9,386	8,749	164,455	212,480	21,636	33,555
LOANS..............	5,967	2,551	5,850	41,226	1,579	1,216	1,138	852	46,012	55,188	21,636	33,555
GRANTS.............	6,515	16,083	18,203	81,981	10,738	9,570	8,248	7,897	118,443	157,292	-	-
A.AID AND PREDECESSOR..	-	14,506	16,885	69,568	8,132	7,446	6,355	5,705	97,206	124,535	8,199	19,951
LOANS***...........	-	1,577	3,266	23,947	595	326	247	159	25,275	28,145	8,199	19,951
GRANTS.............	-	12,929	13,619	45,621	7,537	7,120	6,108	5,546	71,931	96,390	-	-
(SEC.SUPP.ASSIST.)...	(-)	(348)	(8,853)	(30,672)	(5,247)	(4,913)	(3,912)	(3,021)	(47,766)	(55,584)		
B.FOOD FOR PEACE.......	-	83	6,416	30,155	2,052	1,649	1,442	1,192	36,490	39,715	7,289	11,647
LOANS..............	-	-	2,526	16,220	984	890	889	689	19,672	18,936	7,289	11,647
GRANTS.............	-	83	3,890	13,935	1,068	759	553	503	16,818	20,779	-	-
TITLE I-TOTAL[a].........	-	-	3,867	18,622	984	890	889	689	22,074	22,678	7,289	11,647
REPAY. IN $-LOANS.....	-	-	-	12,642	984	890	889	689	16,094	15,236	3,903	11,333
PAY. IN FOR. CURR.....	-	-	3,867	5,980	-	-	-	-	5,980	7,442	3,386	314
TITLE II-TOTAL.........	-	83	2,549	11,533	1,068	759	553	503	14,416	17,037	-	-
E.RELIEF,EC.DEV & WFP.	-	-	754	4,630	319	172	210	215	5,546	6,286	-	-
VOL.RELIEF AGENCY.....	-	83	1,795	6,903	749	587	343	288	8,870	10,751	-	-
C.OTHER ECON. ASSIST...	12,482	4,045	752	23,484	2,143	1,691	1,589	1,852	30,759	48,230	6,148	1,957
LOANS..............	5,967	974	58	1,059	*	-	2	4	1,065	8,107	6,148	1,957
GRANTS.............	6,515	3,071	694	22,425	2,143	1,691	1,587	1,848	29,694	40,123	-	-
CONTR. TO IFI....	635	-	189	16,095	1,548	1,131	949	1,206	20,929	21,753	-	-
PEACE CORPS......	-	-	-	2,082	130	124	131	152	2,619	2,614	-	-
NARCOTICS........	-	-	-	407	50	60	118	99	734	795	-	-
OTHER............	5,880	3,071	505	3,841	415	376	389	391	5,411	14,961	-	-
II.MIL. ASSIST.-TOTAL...	481	10,064	19,302	77,319	5,801	5,839	5,102	4,831	98,892	130,905	15,358	24,364
LOANS..............	-	-	161	31,212	2,365	1,980	953	763	37,273	39,719	15,358	24,364
GRANTS.............	481	10,064	19,141	46,107	3,436	3,859	4,149	4,068	61,619	91,186	-	-
A.MAP GRANTS..........	-	9,154	16,547	29,603	805	798	951	703	32,860	58,725	-	-
B.CREDIT FINANCING....	-	-	161	31,212	2,365	1,980	953	763	37,273	39,719	15,358	24,364
C.INTL MIL.ED TRNG....	-	107	717	1,323	56	52	56	47	1,535	2,349	-	-
D.TRAN-EXCESS STOCK...	-	479	1,322	4,847	-	-	-	-	4,847	6,374	-	-
E.OTHER GRANTS.........	481	324	555	10,334	2,575	3,009	3,142	3,318	22,377	23,738	-	-
III.TOTAL ECON.& MIL....	12,963	28,698	43,355	200,526	18,128	16,625	14,488	13,580	263,347	343,385	36,994	57,919
LOANS..............	5,967	2,551	6,011	72,438	3,944	3,196	2,091	1,615	83,285	94,907	36,994	57,919
GRANTS.............	6,996	26,147	37,344	128,088	14,184	13,429	12,397	11,965	180,062	248,478	-	-
OTHER US LOANS..........	2,091	900	3,653	50,019	351	875	480	595	52,319	55,632	44,566	10,972
EX-IM BANK LOANS......	2,091	900	3,653	42,752	320	377	320	468	44,237	47,446	37,521	9,922
ALL OTHER.............	-	-	-	7,267	31	498	160	127	8,082	8,186	7,045	1,050

* LESS THAN $50,000.

** VALUES IN THESE COLUMNS ARE NET OF DEOBLIGATIONS. SEE GENERAL NOTES-REPORTING CONCEPTS

*** INCLUDES CAPITALIZED INTEREST ON PRIOR YEAR LOANS.

[a] INCLUDES PL 480 TITLE III - FOOD FOR DEVELOPMENT.

Source: Agency for International Development, U.S. Overseas Loans and Grants and Assistance from International Organizations. Obligations and Loan Authorizations, July 1, 1945-September 30, 1988. P.4.

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JAPAN'S EMERGENCE AS A LEADING FOREIGN AID DONOR

Japan is replacing the United States as the world's leading bilateral aid donor. How Tokyo assumes its new position and what it means for the United States, particularly in terms of economic and political influence, are issues facing policymakers today.

The following is virtually the complete article by Larry K. Nowels, a specialist in foreign affairs with the Congressional Research Service's Foreign Affairs and National Defense Division. CRS Review, July 1989.

Readers may want to see also pages 34-35 for a U.S. Department of State article on U.S.-Japan Relations.

Japan views official development assistance (ODA) to the Third World as a way to contribute to the international community and assume a global responsibility commensurate with its economic success. The sharp rise in Japanese foreign aid spending comes at a time when Western aid, including U.S. assistance, has declined due to fiscal constraints and "aid fatigue." Increasingly, other major donors are looking to the Japanese to carry the burden of new development and debt relief initiatives. As Japan passes the United States as the largest donor, both countries are exploring ways to enhance cooperation and coordination of their programs in order to promote common interests, to better serve the needs of the developing world, and to avoid possible conflicts in this new aid relationship.

Although Japan has been able to increase the quantity of assistance over the past decade, it is now faced with a number of questions regarding the quality of its aid, bureaucratic organization and staff, and aid policy priorities and goals. Japan also is confronted by criticism that it could do more, and by a continuing perception that its aid program is driven primarily by commercial interests that see it as a tool for export promotion and penetration into new markets. The Japanese reject these views and find a number of the external pressures for change and further increases to be unrealistic, contradictory, or unacceptable.

Dimensions and Scope of Japanese Aid

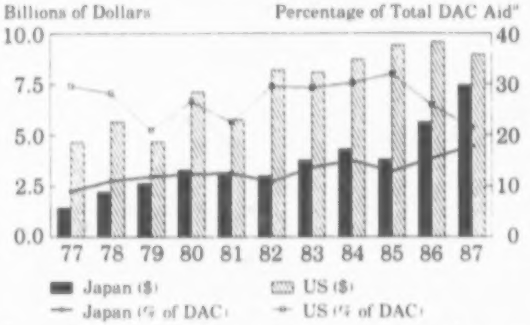
Shortly before the Toronto Economic Summit in June 1988, former Prime Minister Noburu Takeshita announced an "international cooperation initiative" within which economic aid would be one of the key "pillars" in Japanese foreign policy. The initiative was accompanied by a pledge of $50 billion in ODA over the next five years and a proposal for international debt relief.

The commitment to spend at least $10 billion annually during the next five years represents the fourth "ODA-doubling" effort by the Japanese since 1977. Disbursements of Japanese aid have climbed from $1.4 billion in 1977 to $7.5 billion in 1987, and soon will approach $10 billion. During the same period Japan has increased its share of total economic aid provided by the members of the Development Assistance Committee (DAC—the 17 major Western aid donors) from 9 percent to 18 percent in 1987 (see the figure opposite). Japan contributes 0.31 percent of its GNP to foreign aid, which is below the DAC average (0.35 percent) but higher than the U.S. percentage (0.20 percent). Much of the rapid increase in the dollar value of Japan's ODA spending can be attributed to the appreciation of the yen since 1985. Nevertheless, after adjusting for the rise of the yen and inflation, Japan's ODA increased by about 5 percent annually between 1981 and 1986 and rose by 13.6 percent in 1987—rates of increase considerably higher than other major donors.

Japanese bilateral aid is heavily concentrated in Asia. Japan adheres to a rough "70-10-10-10" regional distribution plan in which Asian countries receive 70 percent of its bilateral assistance, while Africa, Latin America, and the Middle East receive about 10 percent each. Indonesia, China, the Philippines, India, Thailand, and Bangladesh were the largest Japanese aid recipients in 1987.

Trends in Japanese and U.S. Aid

(Disbursements of Official Development Assistance)



Source: Organization for Economic Cooperation & Development

* DAC = Development Assistance Committee

Problems Facing the Japanese Aid Program

Today Japan finds itself in the new position as a major aid donor—a position that brings with it a number of challenges and expectations. The rapid growth in the size of its aid program has not been accompanied by other changes that many observers, both in Japan and abroad, believe are necessary for Japan to emerge as an effective leading actor within the international development community. The Japanese aid program is clearly in the midst of significant transition, and many believe that its ability to contribute to international stability and Third World development hinge on how well Japan addresses a number of challenges and problem areas.

continued ——→

JAPAN AS A LEADING FOREIGN AID DONOR continued

Aid Philosophy. Although Japan has been a significant donor of ODA for many years, it has never developed a clearly defined aid philosophy—that is, the goals and strategies of Japanese aid. In the past Japan's experience as a developing country—with an emphasis placed on self-reliance—and its commercial interests to secure foreign markets and access to raw materials were cited as the factors guiding Japanese aid. But increasingly, ODA has been seen as a foreign policy tool that can help solidify Japanese relations with recipient governments and respond to pressure from the United States and others to assume a greater international role. There appears to be deep division within the Japanese Government over the development of a clear and coherent aid philosophy. Most agree, however, that if Japan is to be regarded as a leader in international development, it can no longer characterize itself as a "neutral" and "passive" donor—as Japanese officials have done in the past—and must explain clearly to its own people and to the international community why it is giving aid.

Improvements in the Quality of Japanese Aid. Japan has moved ahead of other DAC countries in the volume of aid, but improvements in the quality of its assistance have been slow to follow. Japan continues to provide most of its ODA (about 60 percent) as loans. With the appreciation of the yen, these yen-denominated loans become more costly to repay. Japan also places heavy emphasis on funding infrastructure and capital projects, which some argue only promote Japanese exports and ignore more important needs in developing countries. Japanese aid officials contend, however, that such projects, which they note are requested by recipient governments, are appropriate and effective development undertakings, particularly for the more advanced developing countries in Asia where Japanese assistance is focused. And despite statistics that show Japan as having the most "untied" aid program among DAC members (aid funds tied to the procurement of goods and services from the donor country), many argue that informal mechanisms in project design and implementation result in de facto "tying" of Japanese aid. A $550 million untied grant for sub-Saharan Africa, however, represents a recent step taken by Japan to address such criticism over the quality of aid.

Bureaucratic Divisions and Disagreements. Four Japanese ministries—each with its own priorities and goals—play a major role in shaping the policy of Japan's ODA program. Many regard this division of responsibility as a fundamental obstacle to developing a consistent aid philosophy and efficient management of an expanding pool of funds that already suffers from a growing backlog due to interagency disagreements and inaction. Some suggest the establishment of a single aid agency or the consolidation of control within the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Given the competing views within the government, however, such a reorganization is unlikely in the near term.

Shortage of Development Staff. A widely recognized constraint is the lack of a professional development aid corps within the Japanese Government. By their own admission, Japanese aid agencies do not have the staff to effectively review project requests and must rely heavily on the proposals submitted by the recipient governments or evaluations of private consultants that may have a financial interest in the project. Further expansions in ODA budgets are likely to make it even more difficult for officials to plan, implement, and evaluate development projects. Some fear that this personnel shortage will lead to mismanagement and "aid disasters" that will erode the broad Japanese public support for the program.

U.S.-Japanese Aid Coordination: Cooperation or Conflict?

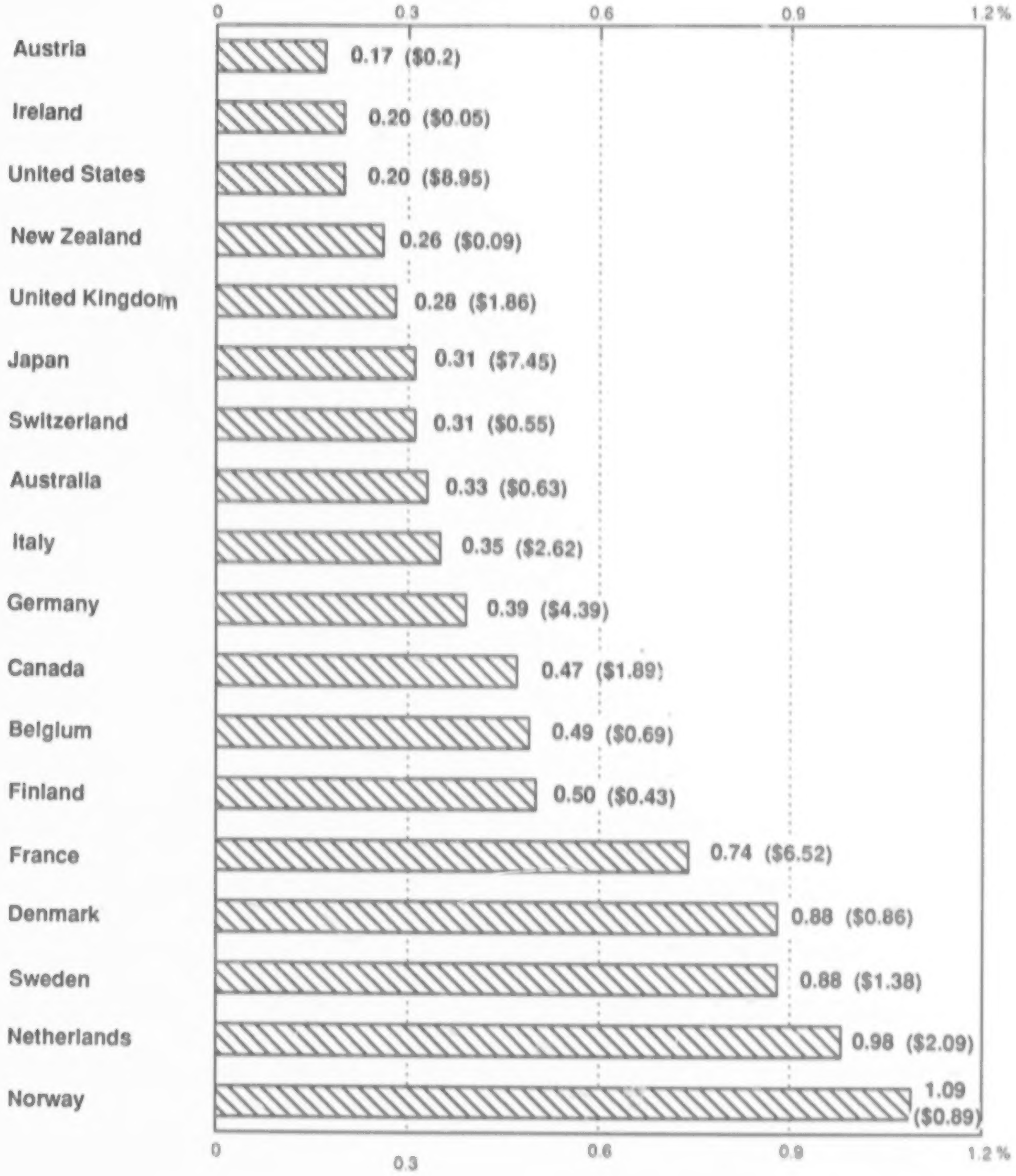
With the growing importance of Japan as an international aid donor, U.S. and Japanese officials have expanded efforts at all levels to achieve better coordination of their aid programs. It is anticipated that later this year Japan will play a key management and financing role as it joins the United States and other bilateral donors and financial institutions in an aid initiative for the Philippines. There are discussions of possible staff exchanges between the Japanese aid ministries and the U.S. Agency for International Development (AID). In May, with the support of the Japanese Foreign Ministry, AID conducted workshops for American development consulting firms interested in obtaining procurement and service contracts from Japan's ODA program. Thus far both sides are pleased with such efforts to improve coordination, and many believe that positive results in the area of aid cooperation can relieve tension in other areas of the relationship.

Some observers are concerned, however, about potential sources of conflict. The Japanese have pledged to make substantial improvements in the quality of its ODA, but many Americans watch skeptically for results. Demands from some in the United States to increase Japanese ODA as part of "burden sharing"—perhaps as high as 2 percent of GNP—are viewed in Japan as totally unrealistic and inappropriately framed as a "burden sharing" matter. Suggestions that Japan provide more "strategic aid" that supports U.S. interests, particularly outside of Asia, is another sensitive issue for the Japanese. In a few instances—most notably Pakistan, Turkey, and Jamaica—Japan has supported what could be considered "strategic aid" requests from the United States... ◆

THE AID PICTURE

Development Assistance Given in 1987 as percent of Country's GNP

($ figures in ( ) is the dollar value of AID given by each country, in billions of US dollars.)



Source: U.S. Agency for International Development.
U.S. AID Highlights, Spring 1989.

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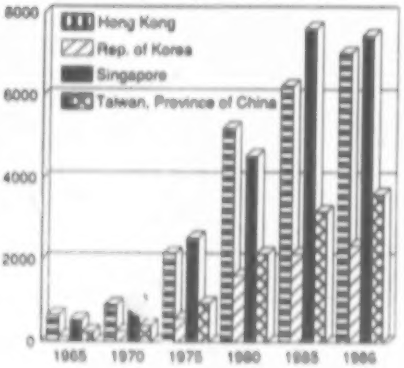
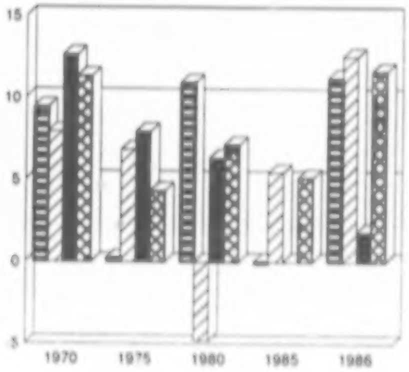
FOCUS Section

DEVELOPMENT OF THE NEWLY INDUSTRIALIZING ECONOMIES, 1965-1986

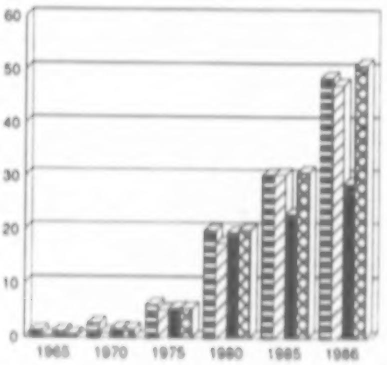
GNP per capita
(US dollars)



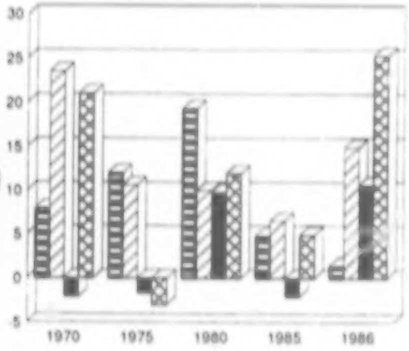
GNP annual growth rate
(in percent)



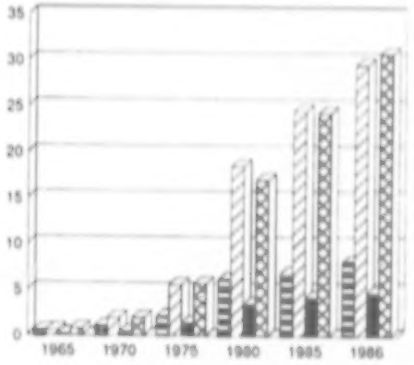
Exports[1]
(In billions of US dollars)



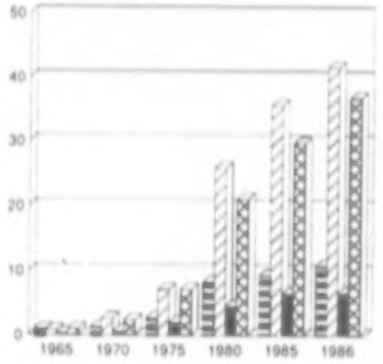
Annual export growth
(in percent)



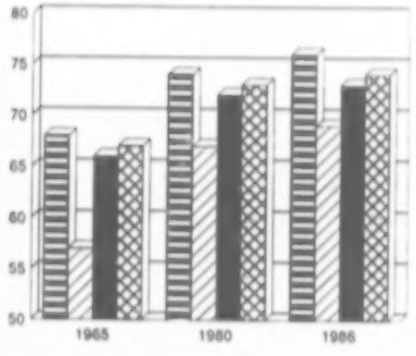
Manufacturing production[2]
(In billions of US dollars)



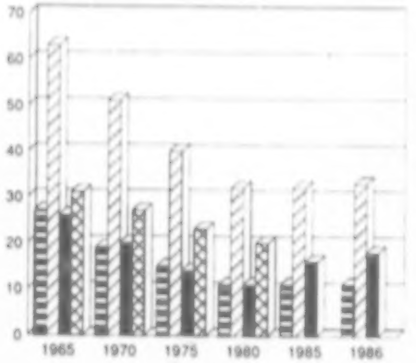
Industrial production[3]
(In billions of US dollars)



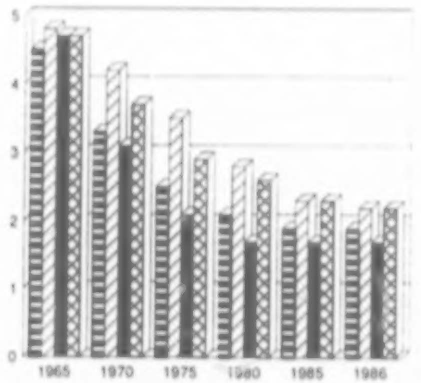
Life expectancy[4]
(Years)



Infant mortality rate[5]
(Per 1000 live births)



Total fertility rate[6]



Source: The World Bank

Notes:

[1] Values cover international movements of goods across borders. Exports are valued f.o.b. (free on board), and are expressed in current dollars.

[2] Value added at current prices. Manufacturing comprises food and agriculture, textiles and clothing, machinery and transport equipment, and chemicals.

[3] Industry comprises value added in mining; manufacturing; construction; and electricity, gas, and water supply.

[4] Indicates the number of years a newborn infant would live if patterns of mortality prevailing for all people at the time of its birth were to stay the same throughout its life.

[5] The number of infants who die before reaching one year of age, per thousand live births, in a given year.

[6] Represents the number of children that would be born to a woman, if she were to live to the end of her childbearing years.

Source: International Monetary Fund and the World Bank.
Finance & Development, March 1989. P.20.

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SOME DEFINITIONS OF DIFFERENT GROUPINGS OF THE WORLD'S ECONOMIES

For operational and analytical purposes, the World Bank classifies economies (in effect, countries) according to their per capita GNP (Gross National Product).

In the 1989 edition of its World Development Report, a previously used income grouping, "developing economies", has been dropped. Income groupings used are:

Low-income economies: those with a GNP per capita of $480 or less in 1987

Middle-income economies: those with a GNP per capita or more than $480 but less than $6,000 in 1987

Lower-Middle Income: $481 through $1,999
Upper-Middle Income: $2,000 through $5,999

High-income economies: those with a GNP per capita of $6,000 or more in 1987.

The World Development Report lists extensive data for 120 reporting economies, and limited data for 55 economies with population of less than one million. Nonreporting nonmembers, for which no data are provided, are: Albania, Angola, Bulgaria, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, German Democratic Republic, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Mongolia, Namibia, and Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

For analytical purposes, other overlapping classifications based predominantly on exports or external debt are used in addition to geographic country groupings. The economies in these groups with populations of more than 1 million are listed below.

- *Oil exporters* are countries for which exports of petroleum and gas, including reexports, account for at least 30 percent of merchandise exports. They are Algeria, Cameroon, People's Republic of the Congo, Ecuador, Arab Republic of Egypt, Gabon, Indonesia, Islamic Republic of Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Mexico, Nigeria, Norway, Oman, Saudi Arabia, Syrian Arab Republic, Trinidad and Tobago, United Arab Emirates, and Venezuela.
- *Seventeen highly indebted countries* are those deemed to have encountered severe debt servicing difficulties: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cote d'Ivoire, Ecuador, Jamaica, Mexico, Morocco, Nigeria, Peru, Philippines, Uruguay, Venezuela, and Yugoslavia.
- *OECD members*, a subgroup of high-income economies, comprises the members of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development except for Greece, Portugal, and Turkey, which are included among the middle-income economies.

Source: The World Bank. World Development Report 1989. Pp. x and xi.

120 ECONOMIES BY INCOME GROUPINGS

GNP Per Capita, US Dollars 1987

I Low-Income Economies

	Low-income economies	290 w
	China and India	300 w
	Other low-income	280 w
1	Ethiopia	130
2	Bhutan	150
3	Chad	150
4	Zaire	150
5	Bangladesh	160
6	Malawi	160
7	Nepal	160
8	Lao PDR	170
9	Mozambique	170
10	Tanzania	180
11	Burkina Faso	190
12	Madagascar	210
13	Mali	210
14	Burundi	250
15	Zambia	250
16	Niger	260
17	Uganda	260
18	China	290
19	Somalia	290
20	Togo	290
21	India	300
22	Rwanda	300
23	Sierra Leone	300
24	Benin	310
25	Central African Rep.	330
26	Kenya	330
27	Sudan	330
28	Pakistan	350
29	Haiti	360
30	Lesotho	370
31	Nigeria	370
32	Ghana	390
33	Sri Lanka	400
34	Yemen, PDR	420
35	Mauritania	440
36	Indonesia	450
37	Liberia	450
38	*Afghanistan*	..
39	*Burma*	..
40	*Guinea*	..
41	*Kampuchea, Dem.*	..
42	*Viet Nam*	..

II Middle-Income Economies

A. Lower-Middle Income

	Middle-income economies	1,810 w
	Lower-middle-income	1,200 w
43	Senegal	520
44	Bolivia	580
45	Zimbabwe	580
46	Philippines	590
47	Yemen Arab Rep.	590
48	Morocco	610
49	Egypt, Arab Rep.	680
50	Papua New Guinea	700
51	Dominican Rep.	730
52	Côte d'Ivoire	740
53	Honduras	810
54	Nicaragua	830
55	Thailand	850
56	El Salvador	860
57	Congo, People's Rep.	870
58	Jamaica	940
59	Guatemala	950
60	Cameroon	970
61	Paraguay	990
62	Ecuador	1,040
63	Botswana	1,050
64	Tunisia	1,180
65	Turkey	1,210
66	Colombia	1,240
67	Chile	1,310
68	Peru	1,470
69	Mauritius	1,490
70	Jordan	1,560
71	Costa Rica	1,610
72	Syrian Arab Rep.	1,640
73	Malaysia	1,810
74	Mexico	1,830
75	South Africa	1,890
76	Poland	1,930
77	*Lebanon*	..

B. Upper-Middle Income

	Upper-middle-income	2,710 w
78	Brazil	2,020
79	Uruguay	2,190
80	Hungary	2,240
81	Panama	2,240
82	Argentina	2,390
83	Yugoslavia	2,480
84	Algeria	2,680
85	Korea, Rep.	2,690
86	Gabon	2,700
87	Portugal	2,830
88	Venezuela	3,230
89	Greece	4,020
90	Trinidad and Tobago	4,210
91	Libya	5,460
92	Oman	5,810
93	*Iran, Islamic Rep.*	..
94	*Iraq*	..
95	*Romania*	..

III High-Income Economies

	High-income economies	14,430 w
	OECD members	14,670 w
	†Other	7,880 w
96	Spain	6,010
97	Ireland	6,120
98	†Saudi Arabia	6,200
99	†Israel	6,800
100	New Zealand	7,750
101	†Singapore	7,940
102	†Hong Kong	8,070^{p}
103	Italy	10,350
104	United Kingdom	10,420
105	Australia	11,100
106	Belgium	11,480
107	Netherlands	11,860
108	Austria	11,980
109	France	12,790
110	Germany, Fed. Rep.	14,400
111	Finland	14,470
112	†Kuwait	14,610
113	Denmark	14,930
114	Canada	15,160
115	Sweden	15,550
116	Japan	15,760
117	†United Arab Emirates	15,830
118	Norway	17,190
119	United States	18,530
120	Switzerland	21,330
	Total reporting economies	3,010 w
	Oil exporters	1,520 w
	Nonreporting nonmembers	..

Source: The World Bank. World Development Report 1989. Excerpted from Table 1, pages 164-165.

SOME ASPECTS OF DEVELOPMENT FROM THE WORLD BANK

(The 129 Reporting Member-Economies Containing a Population of One Million or More)

(Countries are listed by Gross National Product Per Capita 1987)

	Population (millions) mid-1987	Life expectancy at birth (years) 1987	GNP per capita[a] Dollars 1987	Daily calorie supply per capita 1986	Urban population As percentage of total population 1987	Female students per 100 Male students, secondary level, 1986
Low-income economies	**2,822.9 t**	**61 w**	**290 w**	**2,384 w**	**30 w**	**60 w**
China and India	**1,866.1 t**	**65 w**	**300 w**	**2,463 w**	**33 w**	**60 w**
Other low-income	**956.9 t**	**54 w**	**280 w**	**2,227 w**	**24 w**	**59 w**
1 Ethiopia	44.8	47	130	1,749	12	64
2 Bhutan	1.3	48	150	..	5	31
3 Chad	5.3	46	150	1,717	30	18
4 Zaire	32.6	52	150	2,163	38	40
5 Bangladesh	106.1	51	160	1,927	13	45
6 Malawi	7.9	46	160	2,310	13	51
7 Nepal	17.6	51	160	2,052	9	30
8 Lao PDR	3.8	48	170	2,391	17	73
9 Mozambique	14.6	48	170	1,595	23	53
10 Tanzania	23.9	53	180	2,192	29	62
11 Burkina Faso	8.3	47	190	2,139	8	47
12 Madagascar	10.9	54	210	2,440	23	74
13 Mali	7.8	47	210	2,074	19	43
14 Burundi	5.0	49	250	2,343	7	52
15 Zambia	7.2	53	250	..	53	58
16 Niger	6.8	45	260	2,432	18	39
17 Uganda	15.7	48	260	2,344	10	54
18 China	1,068.5	69	290	2,630	38	69
19 Somalia	5.7	47	290	2,138	36	58
20 Togo	3.2	53	290	2,207	24	31
21 India	797.5	58	300	2,238	27	48
22 Rwanda	6.4	49	300	1,830	7	29
23 Sierra Leone	3.8	41	300	1,855	26	..
24 Benin	4.3	50	310	2,184	39	41
25 Central African Rep.	2.7	50	330	1,949	45	39
26 Kenya	22.1	58	330	2,060	22	62
27 Sudan	23.1	50	330	2,208	21	76
28 Pakistan	102.5	55	350	2,315	31	38
29 Haiti	6.1	55	360	1,902	29	88
30 Lesotho	1.6	56	370	2,303	19	150
31 Nigeria	106.6	51	370	2,146	33	..
32 Ghana	13.6	54	390	1,759	32	62
33 Sri Lanka	16.4	70	400	2,401	21	109
34 Yemen, PDR	2.3	51	420	2,299	42	48
35 Mauritania	1.9	46	440	2,322	38	41
36 Indonesia	171.4	60	450	2,579	27	73
37 Liberia	2.3	54	450	2,381	42	..
38 *Afghanistan*	..	..	..	..	..	49
39 *Burma*	39.3	60	..	2,609	24	..
40 *Guinea*	6.5	42	..	1,777	24	33
41 *Kampuchea, Dem.*	..	..	..	..	..	..
42 *Viet Nam*	65.0	66	..	2,297	21	90
Middle-income economies	**1,038.5 t**	**65 w**	**1,810 w**	**2,855 w**	**57 w**	**96 w**
Lower-middle-income	**609.6 t**	**64 w**	**1,200 w**	**2,777 w**	**51 w**	**99 w**
43 Senegal	7.0	48	520	2,350	37	50
44 Bolivia	6.7	53	580	2,143	50	86
45 Zimbabwe	9.0	58	580	2,132	26	68
46 Philippines	58.4	63	590	2,372	41	99
47 Yemen Arab Rep.	8.5	51	590	2,318	23	12
48 Morocco	23.3	61	610	2,915	47	67
49 Egypt, Arab Rep.	50.1	61	680	3,342	48	..
50 Papua New Guinea	3.7	54	700	2,205	15	..
51 Dominican Rep.	6.7	66	730	2,477	58	122
52 Côte d'Ivoire	11.1	52	740	2,562	44	41
53 Honduras	4.7	64	810	2,068	42	..
54 Nicaragua	3.5	63	830	2,495	58	172
55 Thailand	53.6	64	850	2,331	21	..
56 El Salvador	4.9	62	860	2,160	44	94
57 Congo, People's Rep.	2.0	59	870	2,619	41	75
58 Jamaica	2.4	74	940	2,590	51	105
59 Guatemala	8.4	62	950	2,307	33	..
60 Cameroon	10.9	56	970	2,028	46	62
61 Paraguay	3.9	67	990	2,853	46	98
62 Ecuador	9.9	65	1,040	2,058	55	100
63 Botswana	1.1	59	1,050	2,201	21	111
64 Tunisia	7.6	65	1,180	2,994	54	71
65 Turkey	52.6	64	1,210	3,229	47	59
66 Colombia	29.5	66	1,240	2,543	69	100
67 Chile	12.5	72	1,310	2,579	85	108

Considerable effort has been made to standardize the data; nevertheless, statistical methods, coverage, practices, and definitions differ widely. In addition, the statistical systems in many developing economies are still weak, and this affects the availability and reliability of the data. Moreover, intercountry and intertemporal comparisons always involve complex technical problems, which cannot be fully and unequivocally resolved. The data are drawn from sources thought to be most authoritative, but many of them are subject to considerable margins of error. Readers are urged to take these limitations into account in interpreting the indicators, particularly when making comparisons across economies. (World Bank. P.228 of source cited on next page.)

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ASPECTS OF DEVELOPMENT continued

	Population (millions) mid-1987	Life expectancy at birth (years) 1987	GNP per capita[a] Dollars 1987	Daily calorie supply per capita 1986	Urban population As percentage of total population 1987	Female students per 100 Male students, secondary level, 1986
68 Peru	20.2	61	1,470	2,246	69	88
69 Mauritius	1.0	67	1,490	2,748	42	90
70 Jordan	3.8	66	1,560	2,991	66	96
71 Costa Rica	2.6	74	1,610	2,803	45	106
72 Syrian Arab Rep.	11.2	65	1,640	3,260	51	69
73 Malaysia	16.5	70	1,810	2,730	40	*98*
74 Mexico	81.9	69	1,830	3,132	71	88
75 South Africa	33.1	60	1,890	2,924	57	..
76 Poland	37.7	71	1,930	3,336	61	265
77 *Lebanon*	..	..	..	..	..	..
Upper-middle-income	**432.5 t**	**67 w**	**2,710 w**	**2,970 w**	**66 w**	..
78 Brazil	141.4	65	2,020	2,656	75	..
79 Uruguay	3.0	71	2,190	2,648	85	..
80 Hungary	10.6	70	2,240	3,569	59	187
81 Panama	2.3	72	2,240	2,446	54	109
82 Argentina	31.1	71	2,390	3,210	85	..
83 Yugoslavia	23.4	71	2,480	3,563	48	92
84 Algeria	23.1	63	2,680	2,715	44	72
85 Korea, Rep.	42.1	69	2,690	2,907	69	88
86 Gabon	1.1	52	2,700	2,521	43	81
87 Portugal	10.2	73	2,830	3,151	32	*116*
88 Venezuela	18.3	70	3,230	2,494	83	119
89 Greece	10.0	76	4,020	3,688	61	*102*
90 Trinidad and Tobago	1.2	70	4,210	3,082	67	*101*
91 Libya	4.1	61	5,460	3,601	67	..
92 Oman	1.3	55	5,810	..	10	58
93 *Iran, Islamic Rep.*	47.0	63	..	3,313	53	67
94 *Iraq*	17.1	64	..	2,932	72	59
95 *Romania*	22.9	70	..	3,373	49	..
Low- and middle-income	**3,861.4 t**	**62 w**	**700 w**	**2,509 w**	**37 w**	**67 w**
Sub-Saharan Africa	**441.7 t**	**51 w**	**330 w**	**2,101 w**	**27 w**	**56 w**
East Asia	**1,512.7 t**	**68 w**	**470 w**	**2,594 w**	**37 w**	**72 w**
South Asia	**1,080.9 t**	**57 w**	**290 w**	**2,228 w**	**25 w**	**47 w**
Europe, M.East, & N.Africa	**389.6 t**	**64 w**	**1,940 w**	**3,177 w**	**50 w**	**97 w**
Latin America & Caribbean	**403.5 t**	**66 w**	**1,790 w**	**2,701 w**	**70 w**	..
17 highly indebted	**582.5 t**	**63 w**	**1,430 w**	**2,635 w**	**60 w**	**92 w**
High-income economies	**777.2 t**	**76 w**	**14,430 w**	**3,375 w**	**77 w**	**99 w**
OECD members	**746.6 t**	**76 w**	**14,670 w**	**3,390 w**	**77 w**	**99 w**
†Other	**30.6 t**	**70 w**	**7,880 w**	**3,001 w**	**83 w**	**92 w**
96 Spain	38.8	77	6,010	3,359	77	102
97 Ireland	3.6	74	6,120	3,632	58	*101*
98 †Saudi Arabia	12.6	63	6,200	3,004	75	*70*
99 †Israel	4.4	75	6,800	3,061	91	122
100 New Zealand	3.3	75	7,750	3,463	84	98
101 †Singapore	2.6	73	7,940	2,840	100	*102*
102 †Hong Kong	5.6	76	8,070[b]	2,859	93	*105*
103 Italy	57.4	77	10,350	3,523	68	95
104 United Kingdom	56.9	75	10,420	3,256	92	..
105 Australia	16.2	76	11,100	3,326	86	98
106 Belgium	9.9	75	11,480	..	97	96
107 Netherlands	14.7	77	11,860	3,326	88	112
108 Austria	7.6	74	11,980	3,428	57	93
109 France	55.6	77	12,790	3,336	74	110
110 Germany, Fed. Rep.	61.2	75	14,400	3,528	86	98
111 Finland	4.9	76	14,470	3,122	60	113
112 †Kuwait	1.9	73	14,610	3,021	95	*89*
113 Denmark	5.1	75	14,930	3,633	86	105
114 Canada	25.9	77	15,160	3,462	76	95
115 Sweden	8.4	77	15,550	3,064	84	*107*
116 Japan	122.1	78	15,760	2,864	77	99
117 †United Arab Emirates	1.5	71	15,830	3,733	78	97
118 Norway	4.2	77	17,190	3,223	74	103
119 United States	243.8	75	18,530	3,645	74	97
120 Switzerland	6.5	77	21,330	3,437	61	99
Total reporting economies	**4,638.6 t**	**65 w**	**3,010 w**	**2,655 w**	**44 w**	**73 w**
Oil exporters	**578.4 t**	**61 w**	**1,520 w**	**2,738 w**	**46 w**	**77 w**
Nonreporting nonmembers	**371.5 t**	**69 w**	..	**3,358 w**	**66 w**	..

Figures in italics are for years other than those specified.
w = weighted average .. = not available t = total

Source: The World Bank. World Development Report 1989. Excerpted from Tables 1, 28, 31, 32.

World Eagle
64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

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The Major Steel-Producing Countries, 1988

Country	Rank	Tonnage
USSR	1	163.0
Japan	2	105.7
United States	3	90.1
China	4	59.2
FR Germany	5	41.0
Brazil	6	24.7
Italy	7	23.7
Republic of Korea	8	19.1
France	9	19.1
United Kingdom	10	19.0
Poland	11	16.7
Czechoslovakia	12	15.3
Canada	13	15.2
Romania	14	14.5
India	15	14.3
Spain	16	11.8
Belgium	17	11.2
South Africa	18	8.7
Taiwan (ROC)	19	8.5
German Dem Rep	20	8.1
Turkey	21	8.1
Mexico	22	7.8
DPR Korea (E)	23	6.8
Australia	24	6.4
Netherlands	25	5.5
Sweden	26	4.8
Austria	27	4.6
Yugoslavia	28	4.5
Luxemburg	29	3.7
Venezuela	30	3.7
Argentina	31	3.6
Hungary	32	3.6
Finland	33	2.8
Bulgaria	34	2.5
Egypt	35	2.0
Indonesia	36	1.9
Other countries		17.6
WORLD TOTAL		778.4

This table lists all countries producing more than two million metric tons of crude steel in year shown.

The Major Importers and Exporters of Steel, 1987

Rank	Total Exports	Tonnnage
1	Japan	25.2
2	FR Germany	18.9
3	Belgium-Luxemburg	12.4
4	France	11.0
5	USSR	9.2
6	Italy	7.2
7	Brazil	6.5
8	United Kingdom	6.5
9	Republic of Korea	6.1
10	Netherlands	5.2
11	German Dem. Rep.	4.8
12	Spain	4.8
13	Canada	4.2
14	Czechoslovakia	4.1
15	Romania (E)	3.1
16	Austria	3.1
17	Sweden	2.9
18	Turkey	2.8
19	South Africa	2.6
20	Poland	2.3

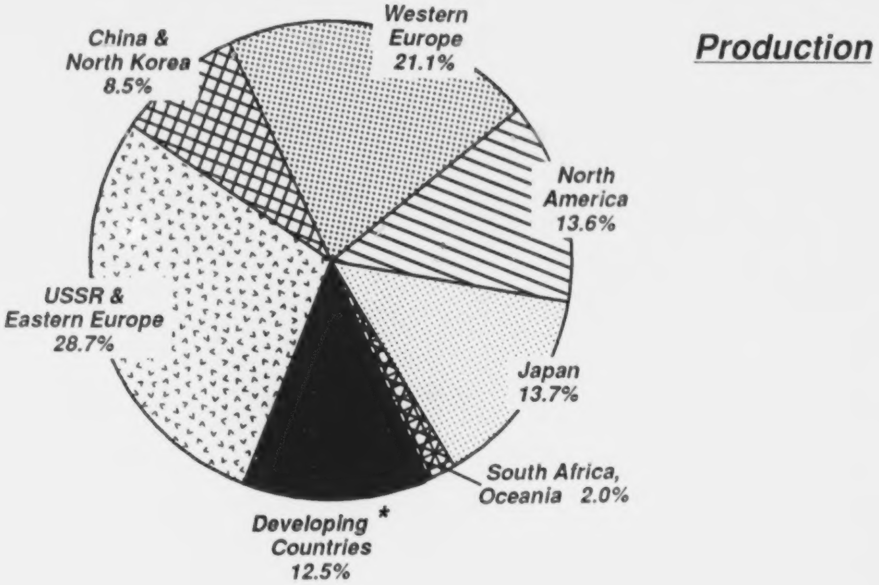
Rank	Total Imports	Tonnage
1	United States	18.7
2	China (E)	14.5
3	FR Germany	12.5
4	USSR	10.8
5	France	8.5
6	Italy	7.8
7	German Dem. Rep.	5.5
8	Japan	5.0
9	United Kingdom	4.4
10	Netherlands	3.8
11	Belgium-Luxemburg	3.8
12	Taiwan (ROC)	3.5
13	Republic of Korea	3.5
14	Turkey	3.5
15	Canada	2.8
16	Hong Kong (E)	2.6
17	Spain	2.4
18	Thailand (E)	2.2
19	Switzerland	2.2
20	India	2.0

Rank	Net Exports (Exports-Imports)	Tonnage
1	Japan	20.2
2	Belgium-Luxemburg	8.6
3	FR of Germany	6.3
4	Brazil	6.0
5	Czechoslovakia	3.5
6	Republic of Korea	2.6
7	France	2.6
8	South Africa	2.5
9	Spain	2.3
10	Romania (E)	2.3
11	United Kingdom	2.1
12	Austria	1.9
13	Canada	1.4
14	Netherlands	1.4
15	Poland	1.1

Rank	Net Imports (Imports-Exports)	Tonnage
1	United States	17.6
2	China (E)	14.4
3	Taiwan (ROC)	2.4
4	Thailand (E)	2.1
5	India	1.9
6	Hong Kong (E)	1.8
7	Nigeria	1.7
8	USSR	1.6
9	Switzerland	1.3
10	Saudi Arabia	1.3
11	Algeria	1.3
12	Malaysia (E)	1.2
13	Singapore	1.2
14	Philippines	1.1
15	Greece (E)	0.9

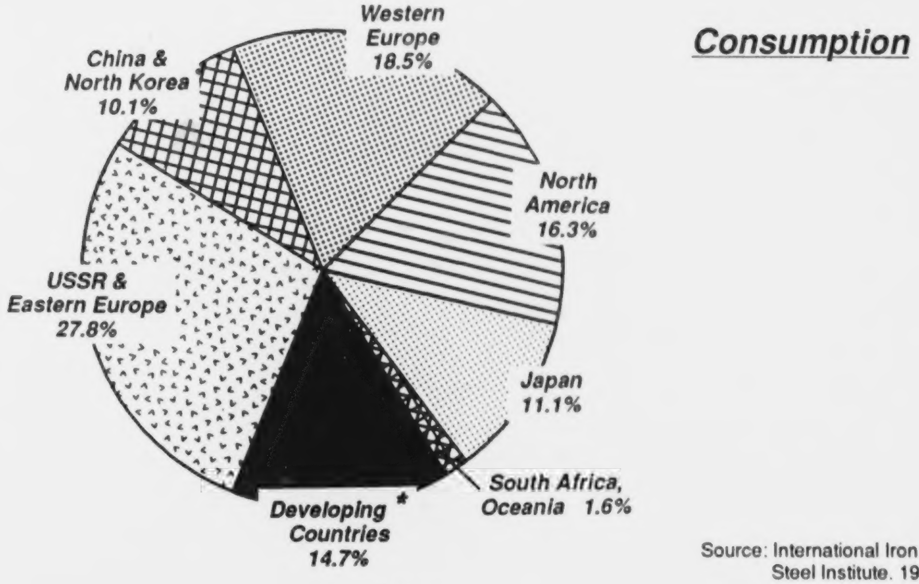
Source: International Iron and Steel Institute. 1989.

Developing Countries Produced 12.5% of The World's Steel in 1988, and Consumed 14.7% of the World's Total



Developing Countries Totals consist of

Production		Consumption
5.5%	Latin America	3.9%
1.0%	Africa, except South Africa & Middle East	2.7%
6.0%	Asia, except Japan, China, North Korea	8.2%



Source: International Iron and Steel Institute. 1989.

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AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT: OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE 1990s

The text on this page,and the charts on page 13, have been excerpted from a Food Policy Statement (No. 10, June 1989) by the International Food Policy Research Institute, 1776 Massachusetts Avenue, NW, Washington DC 20036. Adapted from a speech by John W. Mellor at Internatinal Centers Week, Washington DC, November 4, 1988.

Conclusion

The 1990s can put us firmly on the path to eliminating the bulk of poverty and hunger in the world and, in so doing, to abating the seemingly relentless attacks on our environment. This is possible because of the vast investment in human capital and institutional structures that has been occurring for the past several decades. As the structural maladjustments of the 1980s are removed, the returns are beginning to flow -- first in the richer countries of Asia and LAtin America, then in the poorer countries in these regions, and finally in Africa.

To realize those opportunities, developing countries must concentrate on a development strategy that emphasizes growth in the smallholder, labor-intensive agricultural sector. The prospects for that growth and for the alleviation of poverty will depend largely on the ability of developing countries to reduce costs and intensify agricultural production through technological innovation. That, in turn, will require increased investment in agricultural research and ancillary institutions of technological change to provide the basis for an accelerated increase in resource productivity in the high-population-density, high-production-potential areas, as well as in the more difficult environments. For all rural people to participate in these processes, rural infrastructure will need to be expanded greatly as will rural education. The costs are so great and the administration structure for such an approach so decentralized, that local government will have to be developed far more fully than is now the case in developing countries.

Technical assistance from developed countries toward the further expansion of human capital and necessary development institutions -- most importantly, those that undertake scientific research in agriculture -- is crucial to accelerate progress in developing countries. In addition, recognizing that rapidly rising incomes in developing countries generate a dynamic structure of demand and a consequent need to earn large amounts of foreign exchange through nontraditional agricultural exports, developed countries must open their markets to promote developing-country trade and take measures to insure the stability of food supplies. Finally, food aid from the surplus-producing developed countries can play a major role in support of rural infrastructure and rural schooling -- the former to provide wage goods for labor and the latter to attract poor children to school through school lunches, and both to provide immediate reduction of poverty.

Cooperation by developing and developed countries can help to eliminate hunger in the short-term and encourage the long-term growth processes in developing countries. It is essential that both groups cooperate. Success in meeting the complex challenges and opportunities confronting us in the 1990s can ensure a shared and widespread prosperity well beyond the next decade. Such effort will greatly facilitate accelerated growth and poverty alleviation in the 1990s and bring benefits to that decade that a more autarchical approach would postpone for several further decades. ❖

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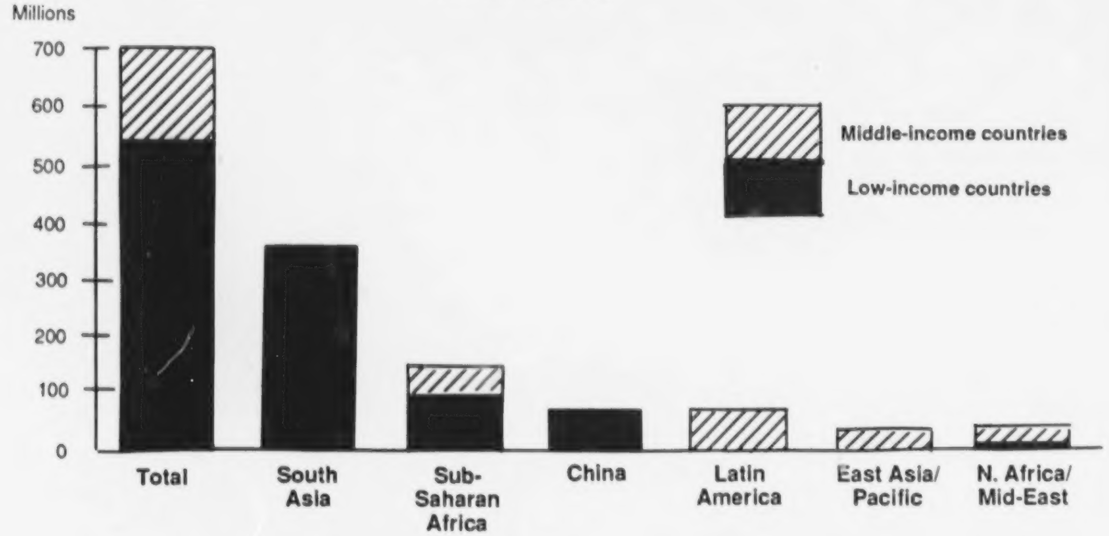
FOCUS Section

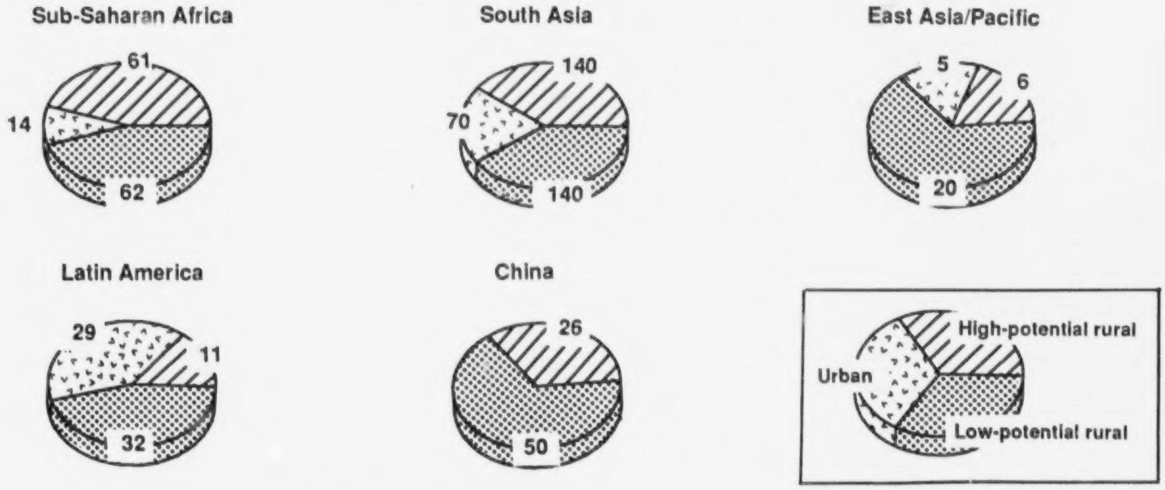
Projected Incidence of Hunger, Developing Countries, Various Regions, 1990

(millions of people)



Distribution of Poverty by Location: Urban, High Agricultural Potential Rural, and Low Agricultural Potential Rural, Developing Countries, Various Regions, 1990

(millions of people)



Notes: All poverty in China is grouped under rual poverty as there is little malnutrition in urban areas and a lack of definite urban data on poverty. No urban/rural breakdown is available for North Africa/Middle East region.

See Source cited in headnote on previous page.

1988 STATE TAX REVENUES UP 7 PERCENT TO $264 BILLION

State tax collections totaled $264 billion in 1988, up 7 percent from $246 billion in 1987, according to a report released by the Commerce Department's Census Bureau.

The largest percentage gains were in Hawaii, Montana, and Oklahoma, each of which went up some 20 percent. Tax collection increases above 15 percent occurred in the nine states listed below.

State	1988 Tax (millions of dollars)	1987 Tax (millions of dollars)	Percent Change from 1987 to 1988
Hawaii	$ 2,039	$ 1,697	20
Montana	715	596	20
Oklahoma	3,150	2,634	20
Texas	13,426	11,254	19
Alaska	1,251	1,062	18
Kansas	2,445	2,086	17
Maine	1,506	1,288	17
Florida	11,460	9,846	16
South Dakota	476	413	15

Three states had a decrease in 1988 tax collections, compared with six states in 1987. Wyoming reported the sharpest decrease, down 9 percent, followed by drops of 6 percent each in Oregon and West Virginia.

General sales and gross receipts taxes were the largest source of state tax revenue at $87 billion, up 10 percent from 1987. Individual income taxes accounted for $80 billion, up 5 percent, while corporate net income taxes rose 6 percent to 22 billion.

Major Sources of State Tax Revenue in Fiscal Year 1988
(Amounts in billions of dollars)

Tax Source	1988	1987	Percent Change 1987 to 1988	1988 Percent Distribution
All Taxes	$264	$246	7	100
General Sales	87	79	10	33
Individual Income	80	76	5	30
Corporation Net Income	22	20	6	8
Motor Fuel Sales	17	16	10	7
Motor Vehicle Licenses	9	8	6	3
Insurance	7	6	9	3
Public Utility Sales	6	6	3	2
Severance Tax	4	4	7	2
All Other	32	30	5	12

Nearly half of state tax revenues were collected by eight states. They were California ($36 billion); New York ($26 billion); Texas ($13 billion); Pennsylvania ($12 billion); Illinois, Michigan, and Florida ($11 billion each); and Ohio $10 billion).

State tax revenue per capita ranged form lows of $532 in New Hampshire and $665 in South Dakota to highs of $2,439 in Alaska and $1,866 in Hawaii. The national average was $1,077.

The report includes comparisons among states, state tax collection trends from 1986 to 1988, rates of selected major taxes by states, and detailed state tax yields.

Copies of State Government Tax Collections in 1988, GF88, No. 1, are available prepaid from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402. The price is $3.00. Stock No. 003-024-07067-7.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census Release
CB89-130, August 11, 1989.

continued →

1988 STATE TAX REVENUES continued

States Ranked According to Selected Tax Amounts: 1988

Rank	Total tax (thousand dollars)	Percent change 1987 to 1988	Per capita amounts (dollars)					
			Total tax	General sales tax	Personal income tax	Motor fuel sales tax	Motor vehicle licenses	Death and gift taxes
	All States 264,055,303	All States 7.2	All States 1,076.94	All States 354.87	All States 326.82	All States 70.13	All States 36.21	All States 13.22
1	CA 36,075,033	HI 20.1	AK 2,438.64	HI 841.53	NY 758.15	MT 127.37	WY 86.41	CT 54.57
2	NY 26,171,524	MT 20.0	HI 1,865.85	WA 769.33	MA 678.72	DE 123.34	OK 75.01	MA 43.38
3	TX 13,425,516	OK 19.6	DE 1,542.98	CT 612.15	MN 609.71	NE 103.56	OR 69.89	PA 33.38
4	PA 11,825,044	TX 19.3	NY 1,462.26	FL 554.47	DE 572.40	TN 102.36	DE 68.02	NY 25.69
5	FL 11,460,299	AK 17.8	MA 1,451.44	NV 515.48	HI 572.36	WI 101.14	NM 65.21	RI 21.93
6	IL 11,078,693	KS 17.2	MN 1,426.84	AZ 492.31	MD 523.84	VA 99.01	IA 65.10	NJ 21.13
7	MI 10,515,368	ME 16.8	CT 1,350.32	NM 490.00	WI 477.56	ND 96.03	MN 63.37	IA 20.79
8	OH 9,990,514	FL 16.4	WA 1,297.89	TN 435.51	OR 468.31	OK 95.42	VT 59.52	WI 20.19
9	NJ 9,762,360	SD 15.2	CA 1,280.71	IN 423.66	ME 460.37	ID 95.30	CT 57.13	NH 19.99
10	MA 8,521,404	NM 12.0	NJ 1,264.55	CA 408.81	VA 459.95	MD 95.09	AZ 54.97	KS 17.90
11	NC 6,922,990	MD 11.9	MD 1,250.46	ME 407.91	CA 456.70	WA 94.27	NV 53.99	DE 17.39
12	MN 6,143,956	MO 11.7	ME 1,248.36	NJ 406.32	NC 426.66	IA 93.89	IL 53.69	SD 14.49
13	VA 6,136,607	NE 11.6	WI 1,236.22	MN 389.37	RI 390.41	NV 93.62	ND 49.95	FL 14.31
14	WI 6,005,545	UT 11.4	WY 1,216.62	RI 385.13	MI 385.79	NM 91.86	ME 45.65	KY 13.18
15	WA 5,994,964	IN 11.0	NM 1,187.67	MS 383.43	UT 377.00	NC 91.41	MI 44.49	MD 12.49
16	MD 5,807,153	VA 10.9	MI 1,130.68	TX 373.72	IA 375.73	CO 91.20	NH 41.80	OK 12.21
17	GA 5,782,747	MN 10.8	RI 1,126.16	SD 366.92	GA 373.66	MN 90.96	NJ 41.76	IN 11.58
18	IN 5,311,824	ND 10.5	NV 1,119.29	WI 364.15	VT 362.70	AZ 90.86	TX 41.36	VT 11.08
19	MO 4,405,501	NC 10.3	VT 1,108.91	SC 357.70	CO 352.56	CT 90.25	VA 38.84	CA 10.92
20	CT 4,376,395	MS 9.4	AZ 1,073.89	UT 348.60	KS 332.25	AR 89.58	MO 38.01	MT 10.88
21	TN 3,855,027	MI 8.9	NC 1,060.83	MA 344.25	NJ 331.31	WV 88.99	CA 37.73	SC 10.30
22	LA 3,774,225	SC 8.9	VA 1,023.45	ID 328.78	SC 326.68	TX 87.83	MT 37.06	MI 10.09
23	AZ 3,722,112	LA 8.8	IA 1,002.70	MO 327.59	IN 316.50	ME 87.71	WV 36.02	NC 10.07
24	KY 3,663,591	GA 8.5	KY 984.57	AR 320.84	OH 309.48	SC 87.60	AK 35.79	ME 9.88
25	SC 3,438,186	ID 7.7	SC 984.31	WY 320.69	MT 303.19	MS 87.19	PA 34.91	LA 9.40
26	AL 3,374,056	VT 7.6	KS 983.23	PA 319.83	MO 294.99	KY 86.73	WA 33.77	AZ 8.94
27	OK 3,150,072	OH 7.4	PA 983.21	IL 318.55	ID 281.27	SD 86.50	NC 33.02	GA 8.47
28	IA 2,841,657	AZ 7.3	OK 965.39	MI 313.88	IL 273.83	LA 82.99	OH 32.21	VA 7.21
29	CO 2,725,767	CO 7.1	IL 959.69	KS 311.87	KY 270.62	WY 78.08	WI 31.76	IL 7.15
30	KS 2,445,284	RI 7.0	ND 955.26	ND 306.89	NE 269.85	UT 76.51	ID 31.69	TN 6.81
31	MS 2,126,254	TN 7.0	IN 952.79	NY 307.90	OK 255.22	VT 76.32	RI 31.62	HI 6.69
32	OR 2,110,963	DE 7.0	UT 947.42	MD 306.54	AZ 247.46	NH 75.68	NE 31.52	TX 6.46
33	HI 2,039,375	AR 7.0	FL 925.94	IA 303.12	AR 246.45	OH 74.63	KS 31.50	MS 5.98
34	AR 2,020,721	IA 6.7	WV 925.62	OH 296.08	PA 233.26	MI 73.90	FL 30.53	MO 5.56
35	NM 1,793,387	WA 6.3	OH 918.92	LA 294.32	AL 225.21	IN 72.01	TN 29.37	NV 4.98
36	WV 1,743,871	IL 6.2	GA 903.41	GA 290.05	WV 209.23	KS 68.37	SD 29.19	OR 4.98
37	UT 1,602,093	NY 6.1	ID 894.55	WV 285.30	NM 201.15	AL 66.82	MD 28.67	OH 4.16
38	ME 1,505,523	WI 5.9	MT 889.41	NE 279.69	ND 171.98	MO 66.11	AR 28.37	WA 4.08
39	NE 1,342,868	NV 4.9	MO 857.27	KY 255.78	MS 134.46	AK 65.65	MS 28.36	CO 4.00
40	AK 1,251,021	AL 4.7	LA 853.90	NC 249.41	LA 130.25	GA 64.32	AL 26.15	AL 3.73
41	NV 1,186,445	KY 4.0	NE 838.77	OK 231.97	CT 108.62	FL 61.73	CO 25.03	WV 3.44
42	RI 1,120,534	PA 3.9	AR 834.32	AL 224.80	NH 27.21	IL 60.81	MA 24.70	MN 3.16
43	DE 1,018,367	NJ 2.9	CO 828.50	VT 222.10	TN 16.19	OR 60.59	UT 23.86	WY 3.09
44	ID 893,658	CT 2.2	AL 817.56	CO 220.15	AK .88	PA 55.90	NY 23.34	NM 2.71
45	MT 715,083	MA 2.1	MS 809.38	VA 198.27	FL (X)	RI 55.04	IN 23.19	AR 2.37
46	ND 633,339	NH .8	TX 800.09	AK (X)	NV (X)	MA 52.04	KY 20.61	ND 2.26
47	VT 616,553	CA .6	TN 783.70	DE (X)	SD (X)	CA 45.88	SC 19.54	NE 2.09
48	NH 583,103	OR -6.6	OR 770.14	MT (X)	TX (X)	HI 45.57	LA 17.30	UT 2.04
49	WY 573,030	WV -6.2	SD 665.32	NH (X)	WA (X)	NJ 42.86	HI 16.84	ID 1.93
50	SD 475,701	WY -9.3	NH 531.54	OR (X)	WY (X)	NY 27.95	GA 11.73	AK .70

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census Release CB89-130, August 11, 1989.

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EUROPEAN COMMUNITY ELECTIONS

Electorate and Turnout in European Community States in 1979, 1984, and 1989

Country and Number of Seats	Election Year	Electorate	Turnout	Valid Votes
Belgium	1989	7,096,273	90.7	5,899,285
24	1984	6,975,677	92.2	5,725,837
	1979	6,800,584	91.4	5,442,867
Denmark	1989	3,923,549	46.2	1,789,395
16	1984	3,878,600	52.4	2,001,875
	1979	3,754.423	47.8	1,754,850
France	1989	38,348,191	48.7	18,145,588
81	1984	36,880,688	56.7	20 180,934
	1979	35,180,531	60.7	20,242,457
Germany	1989	45,773,179	62.3	28,206,690
81	1984	44,451,981	56.8	24,851,371
	1979	42,751,940	65.7	27,847,109
Greece*	1989	8,347,387	79.9	6,544,669
24	1984	7,790,309	77.2	5,956,060
	1981	7,319,070	78.6	5,753,478
Ireland	1989	2,453,451	68.3	1,632,728
15	1984	2,413,404	47.6	1,120,416
	1979	2,188,798	63.6	1,339,072
Italy	1989	46,566,688	81.0	34,829,128
81	1984	44,438,303	83.4	35,098,046
	1979	42,193,369	84.9	35,042,601
Luxembourg	1989	218,940	87.4	174,421
6	1984	215,792	88.8	173,888
	1979	212,740	88.9	170,759
The Netherlands	1989	11,121,477	47.2	5,241,883
25	1984	10,476,000	50.6	5,297,621
	1979	9,808,176	58.1	5,667,303
Portugal**	1989	8,107,694	51.2	4,016,756
24	1987	7,787,603	72.4	5,496,935
Spain**	1989	29,283,982	54.6	15,623,320
60	1987	28,437,306	68.9	19,173,642
United Kingdom	1989	43,710,568	36.2	15,829,054
81	1984	42,984,998	32.6	13,998,190
	1979	41,573,897	32.3	13,446,091
TOTAL	1989	244,951,379	57.2	137,932,917
518	1984	200,505,752	59.0	114,044,238
	1979	191,783,528	62.5	110,952,477

*** Greece joined the European Community in 1981.**

**** Spain and Portugal joined the European Community in 1986.**

Source: European Community Office of Press and Public Affairs. Washington DC 20037 (2100 M Street, NW). Release 26/89. August 1, 1989.

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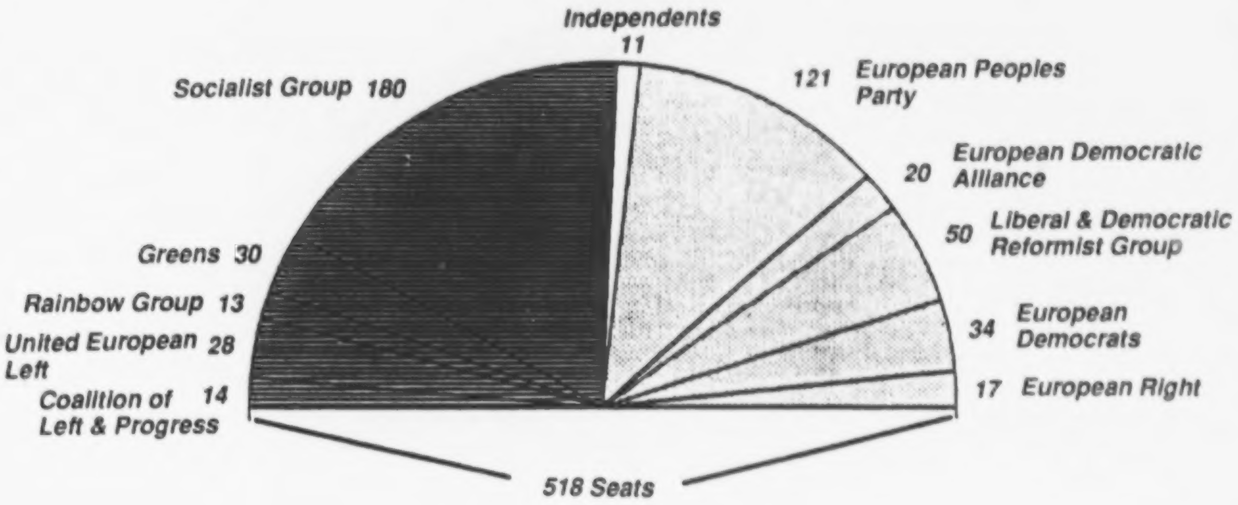
COMPOSTION OF THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT

-- Following June 1989 Elections --



Political Groups (by order of importance)	**Leaders**
Socialist Group	Jean-Pierre Cot
European People's Party	Egon Klepsch
Liberal, Democratic and Reformist Group	Valery Giscard d'Estaing
European Democratic Group	Christopher J. Prout
Greens	Alexander Langer Maria Amelia Mota Santos
European United Left	Luigi Colajanni
European Democratic Alliance	Christian de la Malene
European Right	Jean-Marie Le Pen
Coalition of Left and Progress	Rene-Emile Piquet
Rainbow Group	Jaak Vandemeulebroucke (to be confirmed)

The new 518 member Parliament was elected in June 1989 to a five-year term by citizens of the Community's 12 member states. The assembly has existed since 1952, but its members were appointed from national parliaments until the first direct elections in 1979. The parliament debates legislation proposed by the E.C. Commission and awaiting adoption by the E.C. Council of Ministers. Although it cannot legislate independently, its powers to influence the process have been increased by the Single European Act of 1985. The Parliament now also has final approval over the E.C. Budget and can dismiss the Commission -- a power it has never exercised.

Source: European Community Office of Press and Public Affairs. Washington DC 20037 (2100 M Street, NW). Release 26/89. August 1, 1989.

SOVIET FOREIGN TRADE

January-December 1988 and 1987

(millions of rubles)

Turnover = Total Trade (Exports + Imports)

TOTAL

	January-December 1988	January-December 1987
Turnover	132,155.5	128,883.4
Export	67,115.4	68,142.2
Import	65,040.1	60,741.2

Exchange rate of USSR ruble to the US dollar during latter months of 1988 averaged approximately 0.626. This meant that the ruble was worth approximately US$1.60 during those months.

United Nations Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, July 1989. P.186. Table 52.

BY GROUPS OF COUNTRIES

	January-December 1988	January-December 1987
Socialist Countries		
Turnover	86,256.1	86,320.9
Exports	42,882.8	44,199.7
Import	43,373.3	42,121.2
including:		
CMEA Members Countries		
Turnover	78,877.1	79,552.0
Export	39,047.0	40,696.0
Imports	39,830.1	38,856.0

	January-December 1988	January-December 1987
Industrial Capitalist Countries		
Turnover	30,986.2	28,058.5
Exprt	14,665.6	14,185.6
Import	16,320.6	13,872.9
Developing Countries		
Turnover	14,913.2	14,504.0
Export	9,567.0	9,756.9
Import	5,346.2	4,747.1

Countries It Had Largest Total Trade (Turnover) With, Calendar Year 1988 and 1987

(millions of rubles)

	1988	1987
Germany -- G.D.R.	14,217.6	14,729.1
Poland	13,407.3	12,871.5
Czechoslovakia	13,201.9	13,684.1
Bulgaria	12,966.8	12,828.0
Hungary	9,427.5	9,680.3
Cuba	7,561.5	7,558.6
Germany - FRG	5,628.5	4,957.1
Romania	4,775.3	4,886.4
Yugoslavia	3,841.2	3,974.3
Finland	3,717.0	3,742.7
Japan	3,135.1	2,600.7

	1988	1987
Italy	3,034.3	3,490.7
France	2,768.8	2,608.2
United Kingdom	2,417.2	2,110.5
India	2,252.0	2,178.5
United States	2,104.1	1,198.5
China (PRC)	1,850.1	1,474.9
Vietnam	1,782.2	1,773.4
Korea, No.	1,601.7	1,232.1
Mongolian Peo.Rep.	1,537.0	1,540.6
Iraq	1,270.5	1,112.6
Switzerland	1,177.5	883.9

Source: Journal of the US-USSR Trade and Economic Council, Inc., Vol. 14, No. 2, 1989. Pp. 27-30.

U.S. TRADE WITH NONMARKET ECONOMY COUNTRIES IS SMALL SHARE OF U.S. WORLD TRADE

U.S. Trade with the World and with the Nonmarket Economy Countries (NMEs),[1] 1986-88.

October-December 1987, and October-December 1988

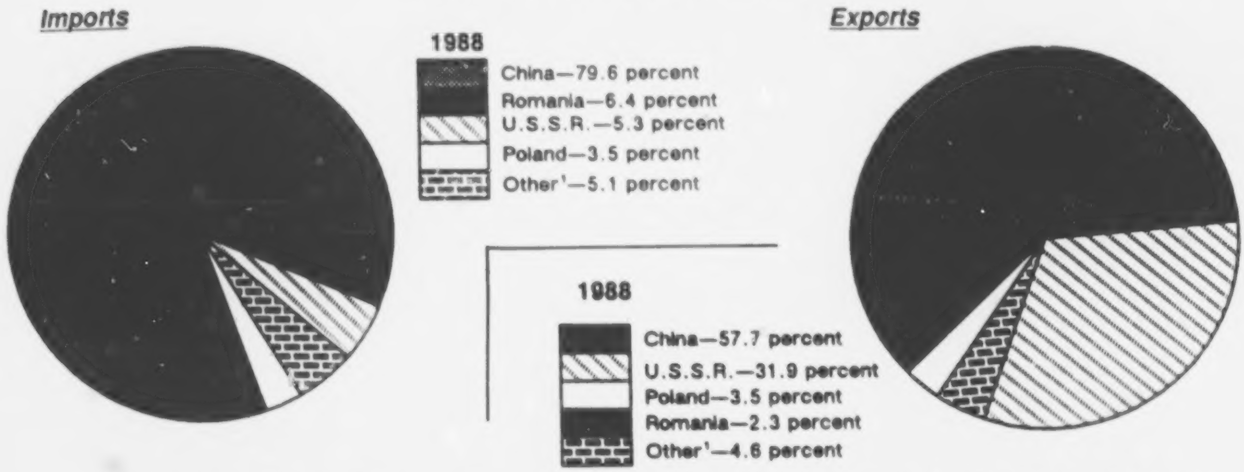
Item	*1986*	*1987*	*1988*	*October-December— 1987*	*October-December— 1988*
U.S. world trade:					
Exports (million dollars)	216,555	243,859	308,013	67,844	81,885
Imports (million dollars)	368,657	402,066	437,140	107,722	114,710
Balance (million dollars)	-152,101	-158,207	-129,127	-39,878	-32,825
Trade turnover (exports plus imports) (million dollars)	585,212	645,925	745,154	175,566	196,595
U.S. trade with NMEs:					
Exports (million dollars)	5,081	5,687	8,668	1,734	2,339
Imports (million dollars)	6,662	8,153	10,562	2,023	2,929
Balance (million dollars)	-1,582	-2,466	-1,894	-290	-590
Trade turnover (exports plus imports) (million dollars)	11,743	13,840	19,230	3,757	5,267
Share of total U.S. trade accounted for by trade with NMEs:					
Exports (percent)	2.35	2.33	2.81	2.56	2.86
Imports (percent)	1.81	2.03	2.42	1.88	2.55

[1] Afghanistan, Albania, Bulgaria, Cambodia, China, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Laos, Mongolia, North Korea, Poland, Romania, the U.S.S.R. (including Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania), and Vietnam.

Note.—Import figures in this and all other tables in this report are Census-basis imports for consumption at customs value. Exports are domestic exports only, including Defense Department military assistance shipments, and are valued on an f.a.s. basis. NME summary figures for 1986-87 differ from totals previously published in annual reports due to the inclusion of Afghanistan, Cambodia, and Laos among NME countries.

Source: Compiled from official statistics of the U.S. Department of Commerce.

Relative Shares of U.S. Imports and Exports to the Nonmarket Economy Countries, 1988



[1] Hungary, East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Mongolia, Albania, Vietnam, North Korea, Cuba, Afghanistan, Cambodia, and Laos.

Source: Compiled from official statistics of the U.S. Department of Commerce.

Source: U.S. International Trade Commission Quarterly Report. Trade Between the United States and the Nonmarket Economy Countries During 1988. May 1989. Pp. 4,6, & 8.

THE 159 MEMBERS OF THE UNITED NATIONS

The population figures shown below are estimates for mid-year 1989, as supplied by Population Reference Bureau, Inc. in its 1989 World Population Data Sheet.

Country	Population (See headnote)	Capital
Afghanistan	14,800,000	Kabul
Albania	3,200,000	Tirane
Algeria	24,900,000	Algiers
Angola	8,500,000	Luanda
Antigua & Barbuda	100,000	St. Johns
Argentina	31,900,000	Buenos Aires
Australia	16,800,000	Canberra
Austria	7,600,000	Vienna
Bahamas	200,000	Nassau
Bahrain	500,000	Manama
Bangladesh	114,700,000	Dacca
Barbados	300,000	Bridgetown
Belgium	9,900,000	Brussels
Belize	200,000	Belmopan
Benin	4,700,000	Porto-Novo
Bhutan	1,500,000	Thimphu
Bolivia	7,100,000	Sucre
Botswana	1,200,000	Gaborone
Brazil	147,400,000	Brasilia
Brunei Darussala	300,000	Bandar Seri Begawan
Bulgaria	9,000,000	Sofia
Burkina Faso	8,700,000	Ouagadougou
Burundi	5,500,000	Bujumbura
Byelorussia (1986)	10,008,000 (a)	Minsk
Cameroon, United Republic	10,800,000	Yaounde
Canada	26,300,000	Ottawa
Cape Verde	400,000	Praia
Central African Republic	2,800,000	Bangui
Chad	4,900,000	Ndjamena
Chile	13,000,000	Santiago
China, Peo. Republic (PRC)	1,103,900,000	Beijing
Colombia	31,200,000	Bogotá
Comoros Fed. Islamic Rep.	400,000	Moroni
Congo	2,200,000	Brazzaville
Costa Rica	3,000,000	San José
Côte d'Ivoire	12,100,000	Abidjan
Cuba	10,500,000	Havana
Cyprus	700,000	Nicosia
Czechoslovakia	15,600,000	Prague
Denmark	5,100,000	Copenhagen
Djibouti	400,000	Djibouti
Dominica	100,000	Roseau
Dominican Rep.	7,000,000	Santo Domingo
Ecuador	10,500,000	Quito
Egypt	54,800,000	El Qahira (Cairo)
El Salvador	5,100,000	San Salvador
Equatorial Guinea	400,000	Malabo
Ethiopia	49,800,000	Addis Ababa
Fiji	800,000	Suva
Finland	5,000,000	Helsinki
France	56,100,000	Paris
Gabon	1,100,000	Libreville
Gambia	800,000	Banjul
German Dem. Rep.	16,600,000	E. Berlin
Germany, Fed. Rep.	61,500,000	Bonn
Ghana	14,600,000	Accra
Greece	10,000,000	Athens
Grenada	100,000	St. George's
Guatemala	8,900,000	Guatemala City
Guinea	7,100,000	Conakry
Guinea-Bissau	1,000,000	Bissau
Guyana	800,000	Georgetown
Haiti	6,400,000	Port-au-Prince
Honduras	5,000,000	Tegucigalpa
Hungary	10,600,000	Budapest
Iceland	300,000	Reykjavik
India	835,000,000	New Delhi
Indonesia	184,600,000	Jakarta
Iran	53,900,000	Teheran
Iraq	18,100,000	Baghdad
Ireland	3,500,000	Dublin
Israel	4,500,000	Jerusalem
Italy	57,600,000	Rome
Jamaica	2,500,000	Kingston
Japan	123,200,000	Tokyo
Jordan	4,000,000	Amman
Kampuchea	6,800,000	Phnom Penh
Kenya	24,100,000	Nairobi
Kuwait	2,100,000	Kuwait
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	3,900,000	Vientiane
Lebanon	3,300,000	Beirut
Lesotho	1,700,000	Maseru
Liberia	2,500,000	Monrovia
Libyan Arab Rep.	4,100,000	Tripoli
Luxembourg	400,000	Lux'brgville
Madagascar	11,600,000	Antananarivo
Malawi	8,700,000	Lilongwe
Malaysia	17,400,000	Kuala Lumpur
Maldives	200,000	Malé
Mali	8,900,000	Bamako
Malta	400,000	Valletta
Mauritania	2,000,000	Nouakchott
Mauritius	1,100,000	Port Louis
Mexico	86,700,000	Mexico City
Mongolia	2,100,000	Ulan Bator
Morocco	25,600,000	Rabat
Mozambique	15,200,000	Maputo
Myanma (Burma)	40,800,000	Rangoon
Nepal	18,700,000	Kathmandu
Netherlands	14,900,000	Amsterdam

continued →

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UN MEMBERS continued

Country	Population (See headnote)	Capital
New Zealand	3,400,000	Wellington
Nicaragua	3,500,000	Managua
Niger	7,400,000	Niamey
Nigeria	115,300,000	Lagos
Norway	4,200,000	Oslo
Oman	1,400,000	Muscat
Pakistan	110,400,000	Islamabad
Panama	2,400,000	Panama City
Papua New Guinea	3,900,000	Port Moresby
Paraguay	4,200,000	Asuncion
Peru	21,400,000	Lima
Philippines	64,900,000	Quezon City*
Poland	38,200,000	Warsaw
Portugal	10,400,000	Lisbon
Qatar	400,000	Doha
Romania	23,200,000	Bucharest
Rwanda	7,000,000	Kigali
Saint Lucia	200,000	Castries
Saint Vincent & The Grenadines	100,000	Kingstown
São Tomé & Principe	100,000	São Tomé
Saudi Arabia	14,700,000	Riyadh
Senegal	7,200,000	Dakar
Seychelles	100,000	Victoria
Sierra Leone	4,100,000	Freetown
Singapore	2,700,000	Singapore
Solomon Islands	300,000	Honiara
Somalia	8,200,000	Mogadishu
South Africa	38,500,000	Cape Town
Spain	39,200,000	Madrid
Sri Lanka	16,900,000	Colombo
St. Christopher and Nevis	40,000	Basseterre
Sudan	24,500,000	Khartoum
Suriname	400,000	Paramaribo
Swaziland	800,000	Mbabane
Sweden	8,500,000	Stockholm
Syrian Arab Rep.	12,100,000	Damascus
Tanzania, United Republic	26,300,000	Dar es Salaam
Thailand	55,600,000	Bangkok
Togo	3,400,000	Lomé
Trinidad & Tobagó	1,200,000	Port-of-Spain

Country	Population (See headnote)	Capital
Tunisia	7,900,000	Tunis
Turkey	55,400,000	Ankara
Uganda	17,000,000	Kampala
Ukrainian SSR (1986)	50,994,000 (a)	Kiev
United Arab Emirates	1,700,000	Abu Dhabi
United Kingdom	57,300,000	London
United States	248,800,000	Washington
Uruguay	3,000,000	Montevideo
USSR	289,000,000	Moscow
Vanuatu	200,000	Vila
Venezuela	19,100,000	Caracas
Vietnam	66,800,000	Hanoi
Western Samoa	200,000	Apia
Yemen Rep. (North)	6,900,000	Sana
Yemen, Dem. (South)	2,500,000	Aden
Yugoslavia	23,700,000	Belgrade
Zaire	34,900,000	Kinshasa
Zambia	8,100,000	Lusaka
Zimbabwe	10,100,000	Harare

* Manila is de facto capital

(a) The 1989 World Almanac and Book of Facts.

SOME NAMES AND NUMBERS OUTSIDE OF THE UN

The population figures shown below are estimates for mid-year 1989, as supplied by Population Reference Bureau, Inc. in its 1989 World Population Data Sheet.

	Country	Population		Capital
	American Samoa [1] ('86)	36,000	(c)	Pago Pago
	Andorra [6,10] ('84)	42,712	(b)	Andorra la Vella
	Aruba [9] ('83)	67,000	(c)	Oranjestad
	Ashmore & Cartier Is. [3]	--		--
	Australia Antarctic Territory [3]	--		--
	Baker, Howland & Jarvis Islands [1]	--		--
	Bermuda [2] ('85)	57,145	(c)	Hamilton
	British Indian Ocean Terr. [2]	--		--
	British Virgin Is. [2] ('85)	11,858	(c)	Road Town
	Canton & Enderbury [1,2]	--		--
	Cayman Islands [2] ('87)	22,000	(c)	Georgetown
	Channel Islands [2]	140,000		
	Jersey ('86)	80,212		St. Helier
	Guernsey ('86)	55,482		St. Peter Port
S	China (Taiwan)	20,000,000		Taipei
	Christmas Is. [3] ('87)	2,000 (d)		--
	Cocos (Keeling) Is. [3] ('86)	615	(d)	--
	Cook Islands [4] ('86)	17,185	(c)	on Rarotonga Is.
	Coral Sea Islands [3]	--		--
	East Timor [11] ('85)	630,676	(d)	--
	Faeroe Islands [5] ('87)	47,000	(d)	Thorshavn
	Falkland Is. [2] ('86) (Malvinas)	1,916	(b)	Stanley
	French Guiana [6] ('82)	73,012	(b)	Cayenne
	French Polynesia [6] ('88)	188,814	(d)	Papeete
	Gibraltar [2] ('86)	29,166	(c)	--
	Greenland [5] ('88)	54,524	(d)	Nuuk
	Guadeloupe [6] ('82)	336,538	(d)	Basse-terre
	Guam [1]	130,000	(b)	Agana
	Heard Is. & The McDonald Islands [3]	--		--
	Hong Kong [2]	5,700,000	(c)	Victoria
	Isle of Man [2] ('86)	64,282	(c)	Douglas
	Johnston Atoll ('80) [1]	327	(c)	--
	Kingman Reef [1]	--		--
S	Kiribati	65,000	(a)	on Bairiki
S	Korea, Dem.Peo.Rep.	22,500,000		Pyongyang
S	Korea, Rep. of	43,100,000		Seoul
S	Liechtenstein ('86)	27,399	(c)	Vaduz
	Macao [7]	400,000		Macao
	Mahore [6]	--		Dzaoudzi
	Marshall Islands, [1] ('86) Republic of the	47,800	(c)	Dalap-Uliga-Darrit Municipality
	Martinique [6]	300,000		Fort-de-France
	Mayotte [6] ('85)	67,167	(d)	Dzaoudzi
	Micronesia, Federated[1] States of ('87)	85,200	(c)	Kolonia
	Midway Islands [1] ('80)	453	(c)	--
S	Monaco ('82)	27,063	(c)	Monaco-Ville
	Montserrat [2] ('86)	12,000	(c)	Plymouth
	Namibia [8]	1,800,000		Windhoek
S	Nauru ('83)	8,042	(c)	Yaren
	Netherlands Antilles [9]	200,000		Willemstad
	New Caledonia [6] ('86)	154,000	(d)	Noumea
	Niue Island [4] ('86)	2,531	(a)	Alofi
	Norfolk Island [3] ('87)	2,367	(d)	--
	Northern Mariana Islands [1] Commonwealth of the ('85)	39,270	(c)	on Saipan
	Palau ('87) [1]	14,000		--
	Pitcairn Islands [2] ('86)	62	(c)	Adamstown
	Puerto Rico [1] ('85)	3,282,504	(c)	San Juan
	Réunion [6] ('88)	571,600	(d)	Saint Denis
	St. Helena [2] ('87)	5,559	(c)	Jamestown
	St. Pierre & Miquelon [6] ('87)	6,300	(c)	--
S	San Marino ('87)	22,638	(c)	San Marino
	Southern & Antarctic Lands [6]	--		--
	Swan Islands [1]	--		--
S	Switzerland	6,600,000		Bern
	The Ross Dependency [4]	--		--
	Tokelau Islands [4] ('86)	1,690	(c)	--
S	Tonga ('86)	94,535	(b)	Nuku'alofa
	Turks & Caicos Is. [2] ('80)	7,413	(c)	Grand Turk
S	Tuvalu	9,000	(a)	Funafuti
	U.S. Virgin Is. [1] ('80)	96,569	(c)	Charlotte Amalie
S	Vatican City State	1,000	(a)	--
	Wake Island [1] ('80)	302	(c)	--
	Wallis & Futuna Is. [6] ('85)	12,408	(d)	Mata-utu
	Western Sahara	200,000		El Aiaun

1	United States	6	France
2	United Kingdom	7	Portugal
3	Australia	8	South Africa
4	New Zealand	9	Netherlands
5	Denmark	10	Spain

11 Annexed by Indonesia in 1976

S Sovereign State
-- None or not known

Sources: (a) The 1989 World Almanac and Book of Facts.
(b) The Statesman's Year-Book. 1988-1989.
(c) The Europa Year Book. 1988.
(d) The Europa World Year Book. 1989.

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What Are The Prospects For Democratic Elections in Nicaragua February 25, 1990?

The material on the following four pages is reprinted in full from a Central America REGIONAL BRIEF "Prospects for Democratic Elections in Nicaragua" by the U.S. Department of State, Bureau of Public Affairs, July 1989.

On April 21, 1989, the Nicaraguan National Assembly adopted a package of electoral and press law reforms designed to comply with an agreement reached in February by the five Central American presidents. Under this package, the Sandinista government promised new presidential and assembly elections on February 25, 1990. It also restructured the Supreme Electoral Council to include representation from Nicaragua's political opposition. It abolished censorship of the news media and suspended provisions for indefinite closings of print and broadcast outlets. But, the package's effect is limited. For instance, seats on the Supreme Electoral Council have been filled on the basis of lists prepared by President Ortega, and according to provisions which assure Sandinista control. Further, rules governing access to state and privately owned media sharply limit time for political messages, to the disadvantage of the opposition. The government also can continue to suspend broadcasts or publications temporarily.

While electoral reforms appear to have improved prospects for open and fair elections, institutional safeguards to prevent governing party manipulation of the campaign and vote are not yet in place. In the current environment, marked by pervasive Sandinista control of government armed forces, police, and judiciary, the key to an honest outcome is an unequivocal commitment by the Sandinistas and the opposition to the democratic process.

Recent Electoral History

Factional rivalries long have characterized Nicaraguan politics, making peaceful transitions from one government to another difficult and seldom long lasting. When the 40-year Somoza dictatorship was overthrown by a coalition of civic groups and opposition political parties in 1979, the incoming Governing Junta of National Reconstruction promised a new democratic model and periodic elections. But, the Sandinista National Liberation Front (FSLN) soon became the dominant force in the transitional government imposing a state of emergency and announcing that no elections would be held until 1985.

By early 1984, the Sandinista Directorate's refusal became the subject of growing international criticism and internal discontent. As a result, the FSLN announced plans to hold elections on November 4, 1984, even though hardline party leaders termed them "a nuisance" and a tactical artifice for consolidating power.

Meanwhile, the Council of State, a nonelected interim legislature dominated by the FSLN wrote an electoral law which kept the opposition parties from being represented on national and local electoral councils. Also, the voting age was lowered from 18 to 16, enfranchising some 100,000 youths who, by then, had experienced 5 years of indoctrination in the partisan school system.

In July 1985, the FSLN announced that junta coordinator Daniel Ortega would be the party's nominee for president. The FSLN temporarily reinstated some of the rights suspended by the 2-year-old state of emergency, although the measure itself remained in effect. During campaign rallies, government-organized mobs known as *turbas divinas* (divine mobs) attacked opposition candidates and activists with rocks and pipes. Access to state-controlled media was restricted, while the country's few independent press outlets were censored. Furthermore, the government rationed supplies to the opposition while the FSLN used state resources for its campaign. As a result, the principal group of democratic opposition parties and private sector groups known as the Democratic Coordinating Board (*Coordinadora*) and presidential candidate Arturo Cruz refused to participate. Six smaller parties, including three which shared the Sandinista's Marxist ideology, formed a shadow opposition. In October, the largest of the six, the Independent Liberal Party, withdrew, citing government harassment.

With only token opposition, the FSLN and its nominee, Daniel Ortega, took the presidency and 61 of the 96 seats in the new National Assembly.

The Elections in Brief

Date: February 25, 1990.

Officials to be elected:
President, Vice President, National Assembly members, members of the municipal councils and delegates to the Central American Parliament.

Agencies with major roles:

- Supreme Electoral Council —supervises campaign and elections. Appoints members of regional, departmental, and local councils.
- Interior Ministry—controls police, mass organizations, and media.

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NICARAGUA continued

The Central American Peace Plan

On August 7, 1987, the presidents of the five Central American nations agreed to a regional peace plan authored by Costa Rican President Oscar Arias. Known as Esquipulas II after a regional diplomatic process first begun in Esquipulas, Guâtemala, the accord established broad commitments toward democratization, cessation of internal hostilities, amnesty for political prisoners, an end to aid for insurgent movements in neighboring countries, and national reconciliation. The steps applied to all signatories, even though some had less to do to achieve democratic reforms than others. All of the measures were to have been implemented within 90 days of the signature.

The following January, the five Central American presidents agreed that all countries needed to implement some steps to be in full compliance, but that Nicaragua had the most to do to democratize. On January 16, Nicaraguan President Daniel Ortega responded by lifting the 5 1/2 year-old state of emergency, abolishing political tribunals, and beginning peace talks with the Nicaraguan Resistance. In March, the FSLN agreed to a 60-day truce with the Resistance and promised "unrestricted freedom of expression." Nevertheless, the Sandinista police and *turbas* continued to harass the opposition. And the government censored the media by rationing supplies and shutting down independent news outlets that reported on the draft, economy, or other items concerning "national security."

The national dialogue mandated by the peace plan produced little progress, meeting only briefly in the fall of 1987 and the spring of 1988. Opposition representatives proposed a 17-point constitutional reform package that included separating the army and the police from the Sandinista political party. The opposition warned that unless such links were dissolved, Nicaragua's political system could never truly be free. Over the next 2 years, major points of contention remained the army's relationship to the party and the existence of the mass organizations—points which the FSLN considered non-negotiable.

Supreme Electoral Council—Named June 7, 1989

Sandinistas	**Mariano Fiallos**—President of Supreme Electoral Council. Headed council during disputed 1984 elections. FSLN activist and former rector of Nicaraguan Autonomous University.
Sandinistas	**Leonel Arguello**—Member of 1984 council. Directs Institute of Insurance and Reinsurance—an FSLN research facility.
Opposition	**Aman Sandino**—Member of Democratic Conservative Party which is outside the 14-member opposition bloc. Party is frequent collaborator with FSLN in National Assembly politics.
Opposition	**Guillermo Selva**—Engineer and member of Independent Liberal Party—inside the 14-member opposition bloc. Studied in the U.S.
Neutral Notable	**Rodolfo Sandino**—Supreme Court judge under Somoza and dean of Central American Law School under the Sandinistas. Sandino was elected unilaterally by the Sandinista dominated National Assembly without consultation with the opposition.

Tesoro Beach Accords

On February 14, 1989, the five Central American presidents met at El Tesoro, El Salvador to reinforce earlier efforts to bring peace and democracy to the region. They agreed that in return for planning for the voluntary repatriation of Central American rebel forces—including the Nicaraguan Resistance—that the Sandinista government would have to take concrete steps to open its political system.

They signed a joint declaration that created the framework for new national elections specifying, in part, that:

> . . . once reforms have been made in electoral legislation and in laws regulating the expression of ideas, information, and the structure of public opinion in such a way as to guarantee political organization and action in the broadest sense for political parties, an initial four-month period for preparation, organization, and mobilization of the parties will be opened. Immediately following the expiration of the period, a new six-month period of political activity will begin, at the end of which elections for President, Vice President, and representatives to the National Assembly, municipalities, and to the Central American Parliament will be held. Elections shall take place no later than February 25, 1990, unless the Government and the opposition political parties agree that they should be held on another date.
>
> The Government of Nicaragua will form a Supreme Electoral Council with a balanced participation of representatives from the opposition political parties.

The Sandinista Response

Although President Ortega held discussions with leaders of 14 of the opposition political parties, no direct good-faith talks with the united opposition took place. The National Assembly approved Ortega's electoral and media reforms on April 21.

Electoral laws. The composition of the five-member Supreme Electoral Council was changed to allow opposition parties up to two representatives on the council. The FSLN retained two representatives of its own, while President Ortega made an oral agreement that a fifth "neutral notable" would be appointed from the private sector. All members were to be chosen by the National Assembly from a list of three candidates for each seat selected by the president. The council will appoint the nine regional councils and will be the arbiter of the election process.

In other changes, citizens residing outside Nicaragua may register in designated consulates or embassies, but they must return to Nicaragua to vote. All political parties may now receive funding from foreign as well as domestic sources through an instrument called the Fund for Democracy administered by the Supreme Electoral Council. Sandinista television will provide 30 minutes of TV time every day during the campaign to be divided up among the various political parties and coalitions, while state radio

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Sandinista Law Versus Opposition Recommendations on Electoral Reform

Electoral Law	As Amended April 21	Opposition Proposal
Article 6: The Supreme Electoral Council (CSE)	President nominates slates of candidates for council seats from lists provided by parties. National Assembly makes final selection (announced June 7). Three out of five seats allocated to ruling political party with oral agreement to make one a "neutral notable."	Political opposition nominates its own candidates for seats. National Assembly makes final selection. One seat allocated to ruling party, one to a mutually agreeable neutral figure, and 3 seats to be divided among 14 united and 7 splinter opposition parties.
Article 35: Registration and Voting	Citizens not residing in Nicaragua may register abroad to vote in national elections but must return to cast their ballot. Military members can register and vote where they serve on active duty.	Citizens traveling or residing abroad may register and vote by absentee ballot in national elections. Military may not vote.
Article 109: Access to the Media	Political parties will be allowed the following access (presidential race) to the media during 80-day campaign period: 1) 30 minutes/day on state TV channels. 2) 45 minutes/day on 16 government radio stations. Free access to 3 independent stations. Time will be allotted in equal shares for parties or alliances. Fees fixed by CSE.	Political parties will be guaranteed access according to the following formula: 1) 60 minutes/day on state TV. 2) 45 minutes/day on government radio. Free access to independent stations. Air time will be distributed equally by political party and time slots allocated by lottery supervised by all parties.
Articles 123 and 127: Funding and Donations	Fifty percent of state funds provided for campaign use distributed in equal shares to each party or coalition. The other half will be allocated according to previous percentage of vote. Parties must give half of all donations from foreign sources to the CSE.	Allotments shared equally by all parties regardless of whether they are part of a coalition or participated in the last election. Parties and alliances will be free to accept donations from foreign sources without restriction.
National Census	Not addressed.	To be completed prior to voter registration to assure process integrity.
Media Law		
Articles 7, 14, and 42	Censorship laws abolished. Indefinite suspensions of media outlets eliminated. Temporary suspensions for violating media laws to be enforced by Interior Ministry.	Legal sanctions for media law violations to be handled in judicial system, not Interior Ministry. The government to license the operation of private television stations.
Other		
Observers	Organization of American States invited to observe, but diplomats in Managua excluded from monitoring process.	Welcome broad spectrum of international observers.

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stations will allow up to 45 minutes. Finally, new language has been added prohibiting the use of government property for campaign purposes.

Media laws. The FSLN abolished censorship of the news media and suspended provisions for indefinite closings of print and broadcast outlets. The government may, however, temporarily halt operations if an outlet disseminates information threatening state security, national integrity, or public order. Publications may be suspended for up to three editions, radio broadcasts for 4 days, and television programs for 3 days.

The Opposition Response

Electoral laws. According to the opposition, the new reforms do not address the basic structural political problems. It has charged that the ruling party sits as a majority on the Supreme Electoral Council since the President and the Sandinista-controlled assembly chose the council members, even though the various parties provided names. As a result, the FSLN still controls the council. In contrast, the opposition recommended that the parties nominate their own candidates and that the council be apportioned to provide better representation to the rest of the political spectrum. Under the opposition plan, the FSLN would have had one seat, the numerous opposition parties would compete for three seats, and the fifth seat would be given to a mutually agreeable neutral figure.

The opposition has questioned voting privileges for the 120,000-member Sandinista military—citing institutional links to the Sandinista Party and the extensive ideological indoctrination received by soldiers. Alternatively, the opposition has proposed separating the Sandinista Party and the armed forces to transform the military into a nonpolitical institution. So far, the FSLN has been unwilling to consider these suggestions, and, at present, it is unclear whether the soldiers will even vote outside their barracks.

Time allocations for TV and radio advertising have been criticized as unnecessarily restrictive. Thirty minutes of television time daily split among all parties and coalitions would only amount to a few minutes apiece. Access to the state media monopoly is only guaranteed during the 80-day campaign period. The opposition considers additional time—at least an hour shared by all parties daily on Sandinista TV to be more fair.

The opposition has called for public campaign funds to be distributed equally among parties. But the new law sets aside just 50% for equal distribution, while the other half will be allocated on the basis of the percentage of votes garnered in the 1984 election. Since most of the prominent opposition parties boycotted those elections (which they charged were unfair), the Sandinistas would receive most of the funds while the remainder would be divided among six splinter parties.

Although independent parties may now theoretically accept foreign donations, they must be received through the government's Fund for Democracy. Half of the contributions may be distributed to the specified party, while the other half will be deposited in a common fund to defray election expenses. So far, there are no evident checks and balances in auditing the fund. The opposition claims that this could make any foreign donation to their parties an equal contribution to the FSLN which already receives external funding from the Soviet bloc and Cuba. It has suggested that each party should keep all of its own donations.

Finally, the opposition has called for a national census—the first since 1971—prior to issuing voter registration cards as a means of checking whether registration lists accurately reflect the population.

Media laws. The opposition points out that, despite revised media laws, the Interior Ministry retains substantial control over the press. Private television stations are not permitted and the government still controls access to supplies and resources used by the media. Newspapers and broadcasting outlets may still be shut down temporarily based on arbitrary determinations of what constitutes a threat to state security. The opposition advocates that determining violations of the media laws should be a matter for the courts and that private television stations should be allowed.

Prospects for a Fair Election

Following the February 1989 meeting of the five Central American presidents, the Nicaraguan Government took some steps to foster a more democratic environment. Some members of the FSLN have said that they will cede power if the opposition is elected. The government also has invited international observers, including the Organization of American States, to monitor the campaign and vote. But, at the same time, it has placed severe restrictions on observation by local diplomats which counters the spirit of free elections. In addition, outside firms are still banned from conducting polls in Nicaragua.

To a great degree, the success of the upcoming Nicaraguan vote will depend on the government's commitment to ensure balance and openness during the campaign, the vote, and the tally. Considering remaining Sandinista Party controls over the army, national police, media, and semiofficial mass organizations, prospects for fair elections and the transfer of power to a freely elected government remain an open question. ❖

Executive Summary of the Latest Report to The Congress on The Refugee Resettlement Program

Section 413(a) of the Immigration and Nationality Act, as amended by the Refugee Act of 1980, requires the Secretary of Health and Human Services in consultation with the U.S. Coordinator for Refugee Affairs to submit an annual report to Congress on the Refugee Resettlement Program. This report covers refugee program developments in fiscal year 1988 -- from October 1, 1987, through September 30, 1988. It is the twenty-second in a series of reports to Congress on refugee resettlement in the U.S. since 1975 -- and the eighth to cover an entire year of activities carried out under the comprehensive authority of the Refugee Act of 1980.

ADMISSIONS

- Approximately 76,000 refugees were admitted to the United States in FY 1988.

- About 46 percent were from Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos, 37 percent from Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union, 11 percent from the Near East and South Asia, 4 percent from Latin America and the Caribbean, and 2 percent from Africa.

INITIAL RECEPTION AND PLACEMENT ACTIVITIES

- In FY 1987, 12 non-profit organizations were responsible for the reception and initial placement of refugees through cooperative agreements with the Department of State.

DOMESTIC RESETTLEMENT PROGRAM

- Refugee Appropriations: The Office of Refugee Resettlement (ORR) obligated approximately $347 million in FY 1988 for the costs fo assisting refugees and Cuban and Haitian entrants. Of this, States received about $290 million for the costs of providing cash and medical assistance to eligible refugees, aid to unaccompanied refugee children, social services, and State and Local administrative costs.

- Cash and Medical Assistance: 52.1 percent of eligible refugees who had been in the U.S. 24 months or less were receiving some form of cash assistance as of September 30, 1988, according to reports by the states. This compares with a figure of 49.7 percent a year earlier of refugees who had been in the U.S. 31 months or less.

- Social Services: In FY 1988, ORR provided States with $54.5 million in formula grants for a broad range of services for refugees, such as English language and employment-related training.

- Targeted Assistance: In FY 1988, ORR directed $34.5 million in targeted assistance funds to areas with large refugee and entrant populations to supplement available services to refugees and entrants in these areas.

- Unaccompanied Refugee Children: Since 1979, a total of 8,620 unaccompanied minors have been cared for until they were reunited with relatives or reached the age of emancipation. The number remaining in the program as of September 30, 1988, was 3,204 -- a decreased of 5.2 percent from a year earlier.

- Voluntary Agency Matching Grant Program: Grants totaling over $7.6 million were awarded in FY 1988. Under this program, Federal funds are awarded on a mating basis to national voluntary resettlement agencies to provide assistance and services to refugees. Almost 70 percent of the refugees resettled through this program during FY 1988 were Soviet Jewish refugees.

- Refugee Health: The Public Health Service continued to monitor the overseas health screening of U.S.-destined refugees, to inspect refugees at U.S. ports-of-entry, to notify State and local health agencies of new arrivals, and to provide funds to State and local health departments for refugee health assessments. Obligations for these activities amounted to about $5.8 million.

- Refugee Education: About $15 million was distributed to school districts by the Department of Education to help meet the special educational needs of children at the elementary and secondary levels.

- Wilson/Fish Demonstration Projects: Demonstration projects in California and Oregon, which began in 1985 to help refugees become employed and reduce assistance costs, continued throughout FY 1988. Both projects are expected to continue operations through FY 1989.

continued →

REFUGEE RESETTLEMENT continued

- National Discretionary Projects: ORR approved projects totaling approximately $9.6 million to improve refugee resettlement operations at the national, regional, State, and community levels. About $8.6 million was obligated for these projects in FY 1988. Five States continued to participate in the Key States Initiative, a program intended to address problems of persistent welfare dependency. Projects in another 19 States were approved as part of a program of Community/Family Stability Projects designed to strengthen services in communities which offer good economic opportunities for refugees. Other discretionary projects were concerned with planned secondary resettlement, assistance to Highland Lao refugees, and refugee crime, to name a few.

- Program Evaluation: Contracts were awarded to conduct surveys of favorable Laotian and Cambodian communities and of Highland Lao communities in the U.S. Evaluation studies of the Key States Initiative and the National Refugee Mental Health Initiative remained in progress, while an evaluation of the Planned Secondary Resettlement program was completed.

- Data and Data System Development: By the end of FY 1988, ORR's computerized data system on refugees contained records on 1.07 million out of the 1.2 million refugees who have entered the U.S. since 1975.

KEY FEDERAL ACTIVITIES

- Congressional Consultations on Refugee Admissions: Following consultations, President Reagan set a world-wide refugee admissions ceiling for the U.S. at 94,000 for FY 1989, including 4,000 refugee admission numbers contingent on private sector funding.

REFUGEE POPULATION PROFILE

- Southeast Asians remain the largest category among recent refugee arrivals in the United States. About 881,500 arrived between 1975 and 1988. Vietnamese are still the majority group among the Southeast Asia refugees.

- Approximately 129,000 Soviet refugees arrived in the U.S. between 1975 and 1988. Other refugees who have arrived since 1980 include 33,000 Poles, 29,000 Romanians, 24,000 Afghans, 20,000 Ethiopians, 24,000 Iranians, and 6,000 Iraqis.

- Nineteen States have Southeast Asian refugee population of 10,000 or more and account for about 86 percent of the total Southeast Asian refugee population in the U.S. California, Texas, and Washington continued to hold the top three positions.

ECONOMIC ADJUSTMENT

- The Fall 1988 annual survey of Southeast Asian refugees who had been in the U.S. less than 5 years indicated that 37 percent of those aged 16 and over were in the labor force, as compared with 66 percent for the U.S. population as a whole. Of those in the labor force, about 92 percent were actually able to find jobs, as compared with 95 percent for the U.S. population.

- The jobs that refugees find in the United States are generally of lower status than those they held in their country of origin. Thirty percent of the employed adults sampled had held white collar jobs in their country of origin, but only 17.5 percent held similar jobs in the U.S.

- As in previous surveys, English proficiency was found to affect labor force participation, unemployment rates, and earnings. Refugees who spoke no English had a labor force participation rate of 10 percent and an unemployment rate of 12 percent; for refugees who spoke English well, the labor force participation rate was 58 percent and the unemployment rate 9 percent.

- Refugee households receiving cash assistance are larger than non-recipient households, have a higher proportion of children, and have fewer wage earners. Households not receiving any assistance averaged 2.3 wage earners -- illustrating the importance of multiple wage earners within a household to generate sufficient income to be economically self-supporting.

- In 1986, the median incomes of Southeast Asian refugees who had arrived in the U.S. in 1975 exceeded the U.S. median, according to data from the Internal Revenue Service. ◆

Source: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Family Support Administration. Office of Refugee Resettlement. Report To the Congress, dated January 31, 1989, received August 22, 1989. Pp. i-v.

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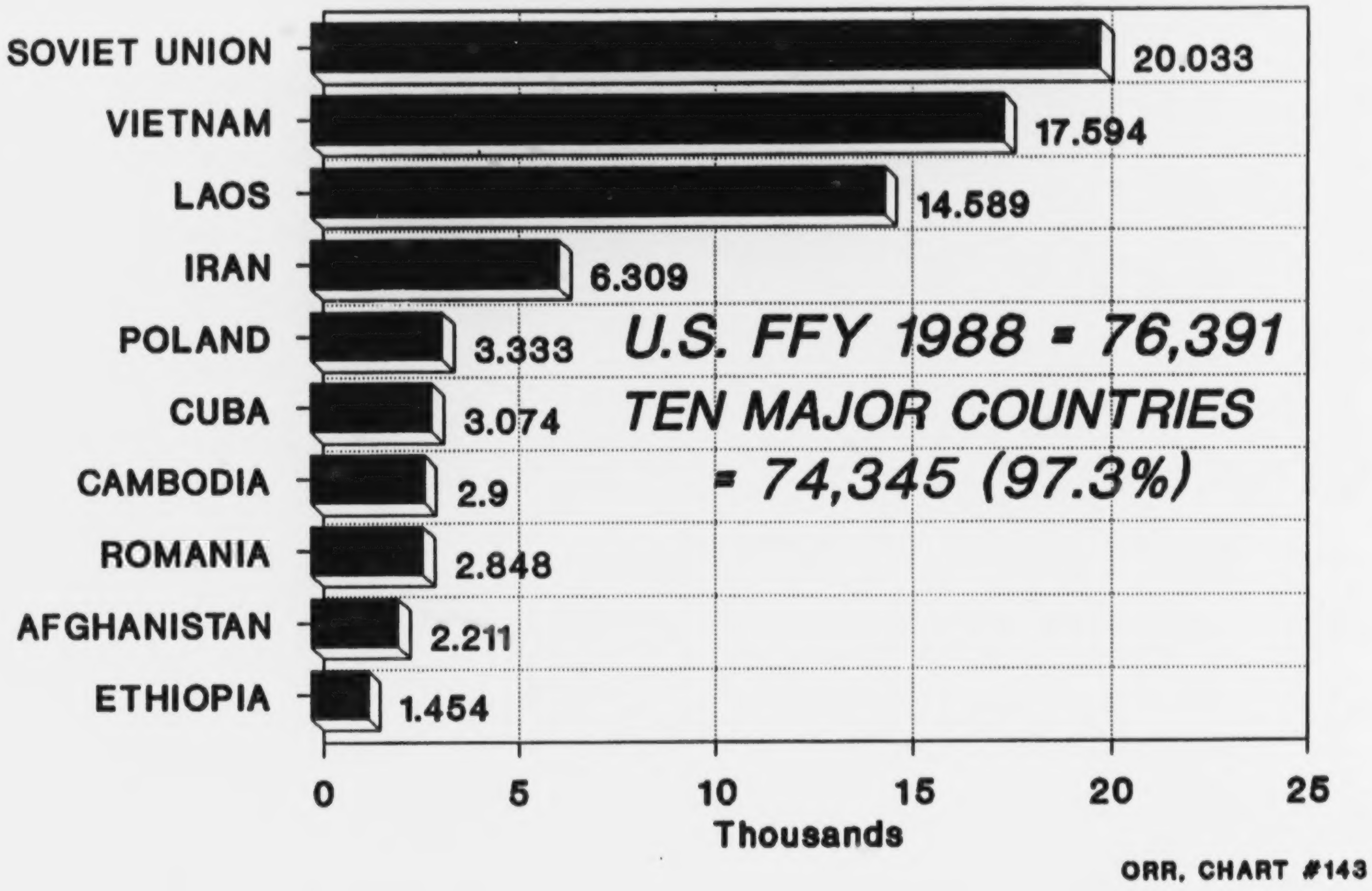
Ten Largest Refugee Source Countries
Fiscal Year 1988



Source: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Family Support Administration. Office of Refugee Resettlement. Report To the Congress, dated January 31, 1989, received August 22, 1989. P.9.

OPINION

No Man Is An Island
'JOHN DONNE'S PEOPLE' SEE THE WORLD DIFFERENTLY

The following is reprinted from the University of California's UC Clip Sheet, June 20, 1989.

Bert never thought he had done anything out of the ordinary when he hid 37 Jews from the Nazis during World War II.

"You help people because you are human and you see there is a need," he said. "There are things in this life you have to do and you do them."

Despite her back and leg braces, Lucille ran down two flights of stairs and down a city block, beat a young man, saved a young girl from rape and captured the attempted rapist by slamming a car door on his leg and holding him until the police arrived.

Bert and Lucille are altruists, individuals whom Kristen Monroe, associate professor of politics and society at the University of California, Irvine calls "John Donne's People."

Poet Donne's famous lines illustrate the altruistic personality that Monroe has been studying for two years: "No man is an island entire unto himself. Each man is a piece of the continent. Therefore, ask not for whom the bell tolls, it tolls for thee."*

Altruists are individuals whose behavior is intended to improve another's well being even when there are risks to the altruist's safety or welfare, Monroe said. She has found that altruists, such as heroes and rescuers of the Jews, are different from ordinary people in their views toward humanity.

"The critical predictor among all altruistic people is their perception of themselves at one with mankind," Monroe said. "Rather than laying out options and making choices, these people recognize that, to be true to themselves, there is only one action, and that is to help those in need."

Four types of people were included in Monroe's study: heroes, rescuers, entrepreneurs, and philanthropists.

Entrepreneurs are those who do what is best for themselves and try to get ahead. They served as Monroe's control group.

Philanthropists are wealthy people who give money to others, even though they keep enough to ensure their own welfare.

Heroes are ordinary people who risk their lives to save others.

Rescuers in the study were people who were honored by Yud Vashem, an Israeli agency set up to recognize Gentiles who risked their lives to save Jews from the Nazis during WWII.

Most social theory has been constructed on a norm of self-interest, Monroe said, in which the world is described as a "dog eat dog" place where self-interest is the norm. But altruistic people tend to view the world not in terms of individuals or groups but rather in terms of all mankind, she said.

Monroe is writing two books, expected to be completed this summer, about her findings. The first, "John Donne's People," explains altruism from a cognitive orientation. The second book, "A Different Kind of People," consists of the stories of several rescuers. ❖

*** English poet, John Donne, 1573-1631. The full text, from Devotions, XVII, here in modern English: "No man is an island, entire of itself; every man is a piece of the continent, a part of the main; if a clod be washed away by the sea, Europe is the less, as well as if a promontory were, as well as if a manor of thy friends or of thine own were; any man's death diminishes me, because I am involved in mankind; and therefore never send to know for whom the bell tolls; it tolls for thee." Familiar Quotations, by John Bartlett. Little, Brown and Company. Centennial Edition, 1955. P.218, col. a.**

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BICENTENNIAL

An Overview, 1789-1989:
THE CONGRESS AND THE PRESS

Over the past two centuries it has been primarily through the press that the American people have learned what the Congress, the "people's branch," has said and done about issues of our times.

The following is reprinted in full from The Library of Congress, Congressional Research Service, CRS Review, July 1989. Pp. 26 & 27. The author is Denis Steven Rutkus, identified at the bottom of Column 1.

The First Amendment to the U.S. Constitution explicitly provides for "freedom of the press" that Congress may not abridge by law. The Constitution thus not only created a system of checks and balances among the three branches of Government but also provided for a press independent of those branches. It created what British political philosopher Edmund Burke, a contemporary of the Founding Fathers, characterized as "a fourth estate more important than they all."

In our democracy, founded on the consent of the governed, the press's relationship to the Congress has been especially important. Over the past two centuries it has been primarily through the press that the American people have learned what the Congress, the "people's branch," has said and done about the great issues of our times—sedition, slavery, Reconstruction, the corporate "trusts," the League of Nations, the Great Depression, America's global responsibilities in the post-war era, civil rights, Vietnam, and presidential impeachment.

The American press, one author has suggested, "operates as a de facto quasi-official fourth branch of government, its institutions no less important because they have been developed informally and, indeed, haphazardly." (Douglass Cater, *The Fourth Branch of Government*, p. 13) Over 200 years, the "institutions" of the press—the journalistic practices and products through which news about Congress reaches the people—have in fact changed dramatically. Press coverage of Congress can be seen as having evolved through four historic phases: the phase of partisan transcribers, who reported detailed, but often highly opinionated, accounts of congressional floor proceedings; the development of a more objective but editorially selective form of print journalism; the arrival of electronic press coverage of the Congress, first through radio and later through television news; and the current phase, in which the public is informed about the Congress through both press accounts and live telecasts.

The Partisan Transcribers

From the outset of the Republic until well through the first half of the nineteenth century, newspapers typically were highly partisan, and this was reflected in their coverage of the Congress.

Only a handful of reporters covered the early Congresses (four in 1813, and twelve in 1823, according to one source). Among the first was a close personal friend of President Thomas Jefferson, Samuel Harrison Smith, who in 1801 secured from the Senate permission to sit in the lower part of the chamber while recording that body's proceedings. Smith and his contemporaries provided gavel-to-gavel (though not verbatim) accounts of House and Senate debate. While their reports sometimes were fairly accurate, other times they "distorted deliberately" (F.B. Marbut, *News from the Capital* p. 20).

Reporting the news objectively was not yet part of the press tradition, and a reporter's accounts of the Congress often favored the positions of either the Democratic or the Whig party. Also, news from Congress focused on the floor proceedings of the House and Senate, and ignored committees, which usually worked behind closed doors and which did not have the importance they assumed in the twentieth century. A reporter's accounts from the Congress took a day or more to reach faraway cities, at first being dispatched by horseback and later by steam locomotive.

The Demise of Partisan Journalism

After the Civil War press coverage of the Congress gradually became less partisan on the one hand, and more selective on the other. The

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continued →

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groundwork for these trends was laid earlier, before the war, by the advent of the telegraph.

In the 1850s major U.S. cities could, for the first time, receive instantaneous communication from Washington, D.C., through Morse code signals transmitted by electrical telegraph wires. Meanwhile an organization of telegraph reporters was organized, calling itself the Associated Press, for the purpose of dispatching news of national interest to newspapers across the country. Because the newspapers receiving their accounts of the Congress were of differing political opinions, the Associated Press "avoided the highly opinionated flavor that had characterized newspaper writers, thus contributing to the objectivity that later marked the American press" (Marbut, *News from the Capital*, p. 82).

In 1866 the House assigned the Associated Press reporter a desk on the House floor so that he might hear more accurately, while in 1873 the Senate allowed the Rules Committee to provide the wire service the same unique privilege.

Press interest in detailed accounts was declining, however, and by the 1890s most newspapers had ceased carrying routine stories about congressional floor actions. Also a more concise news writing style was emerging in American journalism. This style emphasized highly important news or events, rather than a sequential narrative of all of congressional activities for the day.

While press coverage in House and Senate floor debate decreased, press interest in congressional committees was growing. This trend reflected corresponding important changes occurring in Congress in the early 1900s—the committees' assumption of greater power (particularly after the House revolt against Speaker Joe Cannon) and the adoption of a policy of holding open committee hearings on all major legislation.

The Era of Radio and Television

Press coverage of the Congress again was transformed in the late 1920s—this time by the advent of radio, to be followed two decades afterward by television.

Link-ups of radio stations, later called radio "networks," enabled Members of Congress and other Government officials, as well as journalists, for the first time in our Nation's history to speak directly to, and be heard by, a national audience. While radio broadcasting of committee hearings was occasionally allowed, the House and Senate in the mid-1930s closed their chambers to radio microphones, an exclusionary policy that remained in effect (and later was extended to television cameras) for more than 40 years. Radio's journalistic presence in Congress was formally recognized in 1939, when both the House and Senate created in each chamber a gallery for radio correspondents separate from the press galleries established for print journalists in the previous century.

In the 1950s television superseded radio in importance in broadcast journalism, and a decade later it surpassed newspapers as the public's primary source of news about national affairs. The television networks presented the Congress to viewers primarily through two kinds of regularly scheduled programs—daily newscasts and weekend interview programs. On rare occasions the television networks also provided extended live coverage of congressional committee proceedings. These included the Army-McCarthy hearings of 1954, the Vietnam hearings of 1966, the Senate Watergate hearings of 1973, and the 1974 impeachment charges against President Richard M. Nixon. (In the 1980s the sole instance of comparable extended coverage was the networks' live broadcasts of the "Iran-Contra" hearings in 1987.)

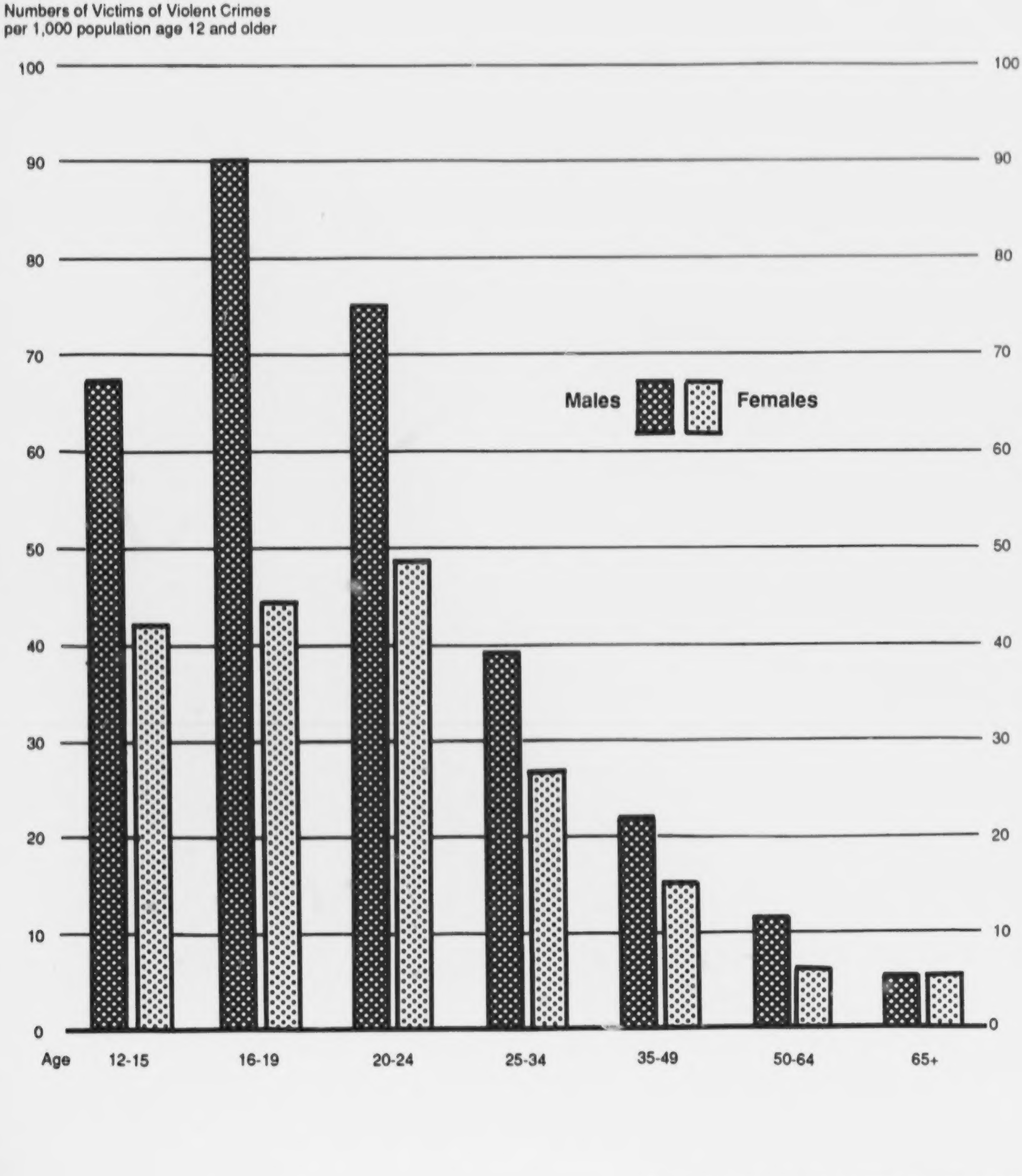
Live Broadcasts of the House and Senate

Press coverage of the Congress entered another historic phase ten years ago, when the House in 1979 opened its chamber to television and radio coverage, followed by the Senate, in 1986. House and Senate floor debate has been transmitted in its entirety over two channels via satellite to cable systems across the nation that subscribe to the Cable-Satellite Public Affairs Network. The C-SPAN channels give both Houses of Congress continuing, uninterrupted access to a live nationwide audience. (C-SPAN presently can be seen in 43 million television households.)

These developments in turn have come amid remarkable growth in the Capitol Hill press corps, much of it due to the recent establishment in Washington of broadcast bureaus or news services serving local television stations across the land. More than 2,000 print journalists—twice as many as in 1970—are currently accredited in the House and Senate press galleries and some 2,500—five times as many as in 1970—are in the radio-TV galleries.

Today's press affords far more opportunities for the public to be objectively informed about the Congress than did the press in earlier eras. It continues to do so, however, independent of Government control or supervision, in keeping with a long-standing press tradition and with the principle of press freedom that the Founding Fathers incorporated into our Constitution 200 years ago. ◆

CRIMINAL VICTIMIZATION IN THE UNITED STATES, 1987



Source: U.S. Department of Justice. Bureau of Justice Statistics. Criminal Victimization in the United States, 1987. June 1989. Cover 1.

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THE U.S. DEPARTMENT OF STATES DISCUSSES U.S.-JAPAN RELATIONS

The following text is reprinted in full from the Department of State's GIST (June 1989) which the Department describes as "A quick reference aid on U.S. foreign relations, not a comprehensive policy statement."

Background: Japan is our most important ally in East Asia, our second largest trading partner, a major creditor, and our foremost economic and technological competitor. Our security relationship is the cornerstone of Japan's foreign policy and the U.S. position in Asia.

Japan received about 11% of U.S. exports, a larger share than that of any country except Canada, and we buy roughly one-third of Japan's exports. Our combined gross national product (GNP) totals about one-third of the world's GNP. The U.S. and Japan share largely compatible global and regional interests and agree on the need to pursue multilateral and bilateral efforts to create a more open trading system. Our President and Japan's Prime Minister, our Secretary of State and the Japanese Foreign Minister, and subcabinet level officials meet frequently to discuss bilateral and global issues.

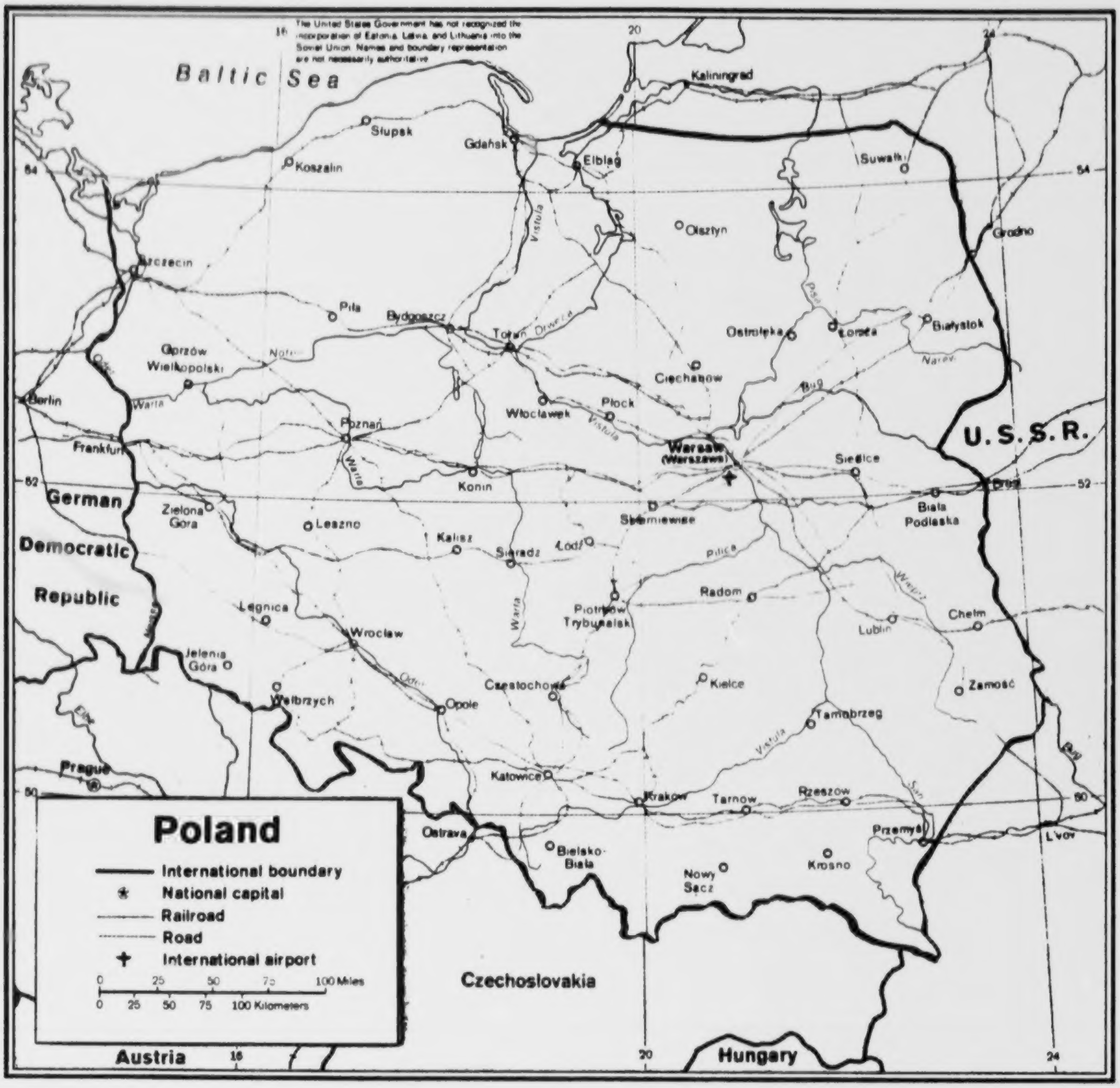
Security relations: The 1960 Treaty of Mutual Cooperation and Security underpins overall U.S.-Japan relations and has been a major factor in maintaining peace and stability in East Asia. Japan hosts 55,000 U.S. troops and is a home port for the U.S. 7th Fleet, which includes the only aircraft carrier battle group based overseas. Japan contributes more than $2.5 billion to support U.S. forces in Japan, which, in addition to defending Japan, serve our regional strategic interests. Although Japan's constitution and government policy preclude an assertive military role in international relations, Japan has undertaken to defend its sealanes within 1,000 nautical miles, providing a credible deterrent to the Soviet Union and thus allowing greater flexibility in deploying U.S. forces throughout Asia and other regions. Japan's defense budget, based on the NATO formula which includes veterans costs, is the third largest in the world after those of the USSR and U.S.

Economic Relations: U.S. exports to Japan increased from $23 billion in 1985 to nearly $38 billion in 1988, making Japan our second largest market. The U.S. bilateral trade deficit with Japan dropped to $55 billion in 1988, the first decline in 7 years. Japan is our largest agricultural customer and our third largest foreign investor, while the U.S. is Japan's largest export market and largest foreign investor. Japan's current account surplus declined by $7 billion to $80 billion in 1988, and a similar decline is expected this year. The yen rose 11% against the dollar from 1987 to 1988 with an average annual exchange rate of 128 yen to the dollar. Much of Japan's $130 billion net overseas capital flows came to the U.S. in 1988, while direct investment by the U.S. and Japan in each other's economies totaled $48 billion. On May 25, 1989, the Administration identified Japan as a priority country for negotiations to achieve trade liberalization under the "Super 301" provisions of the 1988 Trade Act. Three priority practices were identified for investigation under the "response to unfair international trade practices" title of the act. They are: exclusionary procurement practices in the satellite and supercomputer sectors and technical barriers to trade in the forest products sector. These practices do not represent all of the barriers to U.S. exporters, but they are among the most important. Japan recognizes that it must do more to open its markets, promote domestic demand growth, and make structural adjustments.

Relations with other countries: After its relations with the U.S., Japan places primary importance on relations with its Asian neighbors. Ties between Beijing and Tokyo have developed rapidly since 1978, and Japan has been the leading donor of economic aid to China. Sino-Japanese ties, however, have been strained by the recent turmoil in China. Japan maintains economic, but not diplomatic, relations with Taiwan. Ties with the Republic of Korea have improved since an exchange of visits in the mid-1980s by the Japanese Prime Minister and Korean President. Japan maintains limited economic and commercial ties with North Korea, but its overtures to improve relations with Pyongyang have yet to produce results. Japan has long-term economic interest in the ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) region and the Persian Gulf, which supplies most of its oil. Relations with the USSR remain cool because of continued Soviet occupation of four Japanese islands, as well as a perceived threat from the Soviet military buildup in Asia over the past decade. Nevertheless, there have been an increasing number of official contacts since Gorbachev took power, including some at the foreign ministerial level.

Foreign assistance: Japan is now the largest donor of development assistance in Asia and is likely to become the largest in the world by 1990 when its global aid flows surpass those of the U.S. It is a major donor to areas of particular importance to the U.S., including the Middle East, the Philippines, Latin America, and the Caribbean. Subcabinet level consultations are held regularly to coordinate our foreign assistance programs, and the U.S. supports Japan's efforts to open its markets to developing countries' products. ◆

Readers may want to see also pages 2 and 3 for an article on Japan's Emergence as a Leading Donor Nation.


The United States Government has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the Soviet Union. Names and boundary representation are not necessarily authoritative.
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Kaliningrad
Słupsk
Gdańsk
Elbląg
Koszalin
Suwałki
Olsztyn
Grodno
Szczecin
Piła
Bydgoszcz
Toruń
Ostrołęka
Łomża
Białystok
Gorzów Wielkopolski
Ciechanów
Berlin
Włocławek
Płock
Poznań
Frankfurt
Warsaw (Warszawa)
Siedlce
U.S.S.R.
Konin
Brest
Biała Podlaska
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Kalisz
Sieradz
Łódź
Skierniewice
Radom
Legnica
Piotrków Trybunalski
Lublin
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Wrocław
Jelenia Góra
Wałbrzych
Opole
Częstochowa
Kielce
Zamość
Tarnobrzeg
Prague
Katowice
Kraków
Tarnów
Rzeszów
Przemyśl
L'vov
Ostrava
Bielsko-Biała
Nowy Sącz
Krosno
Czechoslovakia
Austria
Hungary
Vistula
Warta
Oder
Noteć
Bug
Pilica
Wieprz
San
Narew
Poland
International boundary
National capital
Railroad
Road
International airport
0 25 50 75 100 Miles
0 25 50 75 100 Kilometers
16
20
24
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Source: U.S. Department of State.
Background Notes, September 1987.

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Duncan L Gibson, Editor-in-Chief

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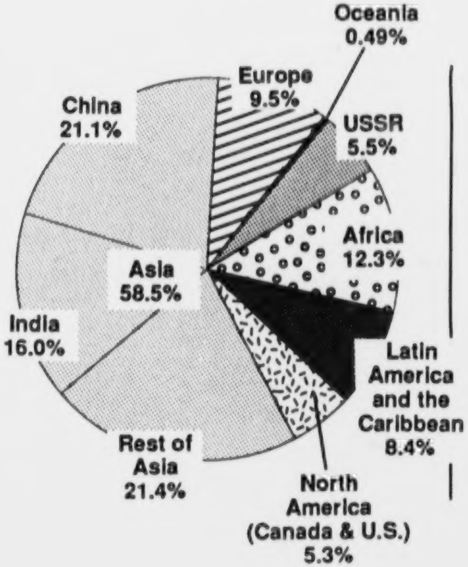
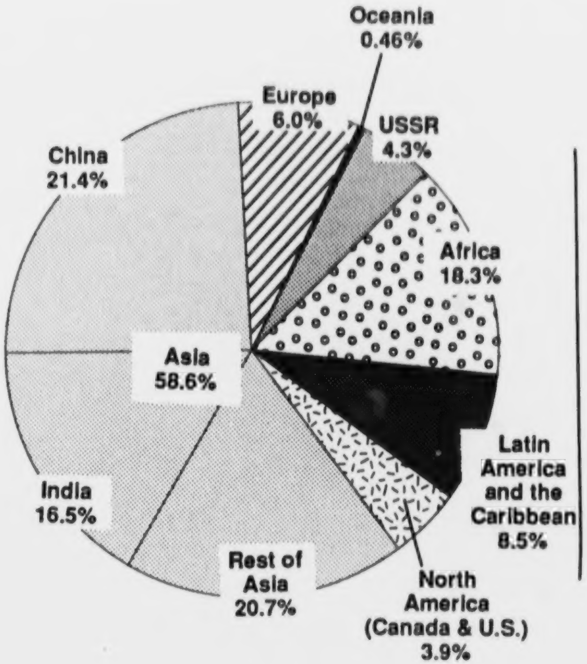
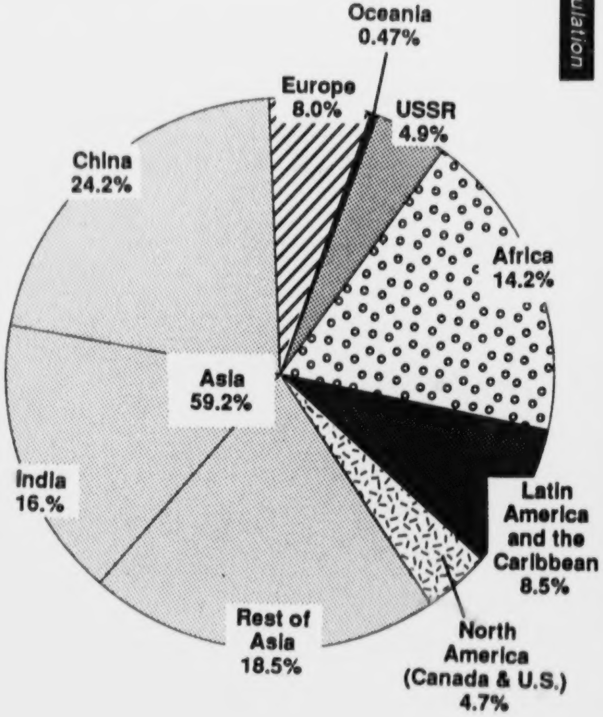
DISTRIBUTION OF WORLD POPULATION BY REGION: 1989, 2000,2020



Mid-1989: 5.234 billion



2020: 8.330 billion



2000: 6.323 billion

Percentages do not add to 100
because of internal rounding

World Eagle charts. Data from Population Reference Bureau, Inc. 1989 World Population Data Sheet.

Explosive Urban Growth Predicted, And With It A Stepped-Up Search For Ways To Contain It And To Provide Needed Services

Reprinted from UNFPA (United Nations Population Fund) Newsletter Population. Dated January 1989, received May 8, 1989.

by IAN STEELE

WITH ALMOST HALF the world's five billion people living in big towns and cities, the search continues for ideas and means for containing urban growth, and for matching the needs of poor urban dwellers with adequate services.

The reason for the search is compelling. The World Commission on Environment and Development projects that urban population growth will remain explosive over the next 12 years. This means that major centres in all regions will need a 65 per cent increase in their capacity to construct and manage urban infrastructure and shelter, just to hold services at their present level.

It's a frightening thought for today's Third World planners. For the very cities that drive nation's economies are stifling the energies and creativity of those who live in them, by failing to provide such basics as shelter, safe drinking water, health services, education, sewerage and other waste disposal facilities. Not only are the world's largest and least efficient cities essentially turning on themselves; their boundaries are spilling over into the agricultural hinterlands that have traditionally kept city dwellers fed.

Cairo, the capital city of Egypt, exemplifies this predicament. At the turn of the century, just 500,000 people lived in Cairo. But today there are 10 million, and 12 years from now there could be 20 million. The inner city, which once covered three square miles, has overrun nearby farm and grazing land, and now stretches all the way to the pyramids of Giza. The population density is approaching 300,000 people per square mile.

Feeding these people has become a daily preoccupation of the Eygyptian Government. In a country where only 3 per cent of the land is arable, some of the most productive lands surrounding the capital are now paved and crowded with human settlements.

Cairo is not an exception, however. "Since 1950, the number of people living in cities has almost tripled, according to UNFPA Executive Director Dr. Nafis Sadik. She added:

"In the developed world, the urban population doubled from 477 million in 1950 to 838 million in 1985, while the urban population of the developing world quadrupled from 286 million to more than 1.14 billion by 1985. By the year 2000, 75 per cent of Latin America's population, 42 per cent of Africa's and 37 per cent of Asia's will be urbanized."

Apart from "mega" cities such as Cairo, Sao Paulo, Calcutta and Mexico, cities of more than five million can now be found on every continent. By the year 2000, three of the five largest cities, with populations of 15 million or more, will be in the Third World. Asia will have 15 of the 35 largest overall.

With so many nations in the same boat, the question arises as to what they can learn from each other.

In 1986, UNFPA hosted an international conference on cities in Barcelona, Spain. The conference attracted the mayors of 60 cities that had populations expected to reach five million by the end of the century. Forty-five of those cities were in the developing world, and the conference offered a unique opportunity to share experiences.

The typical success profile is of a country with a narrow income disparity between the richest and poorest citizens, high literacy, low infant mortality, good nutrition and social stability. Countries which have generally succeeded best at containing population growth, and by definition their urban growth, are those which pay attention to rural development, demonstrate a commitment to social as well as economic development, and the well-being of the female population in particular.

"Women in these countries are generally better educated, are longer in school, and marry later," explained Dr. Sadik. "They are healthier, and so are their children. They have fewer children, and they lose fewer children. They are more likely to work outside the home and to have more rewarding jobs than their counterparts elsewhere. They are nearer to the mainstream of economic development."

One positive development in the effort to understand and solve urban problems was the recent publication of a five-volume International Urban Survey of 108 cities by the Institute of Metropolitan Studies in Barcelona. The publication, which received support from UNFPA, capped a two-year effort following the 1986 Barcelona conference on Population and the Urban Future.

The study concentrates on cities with a population of more than one million and provides physical, demographic, political economic and social data. During a presentation ceremony at UN headquarters in New York, representatives of the Barcelona Institute expressed hope that the study would lead to the opening of a permanent centre in Barcelona to study international urban problems. *(Depthnews Asia)* ◆

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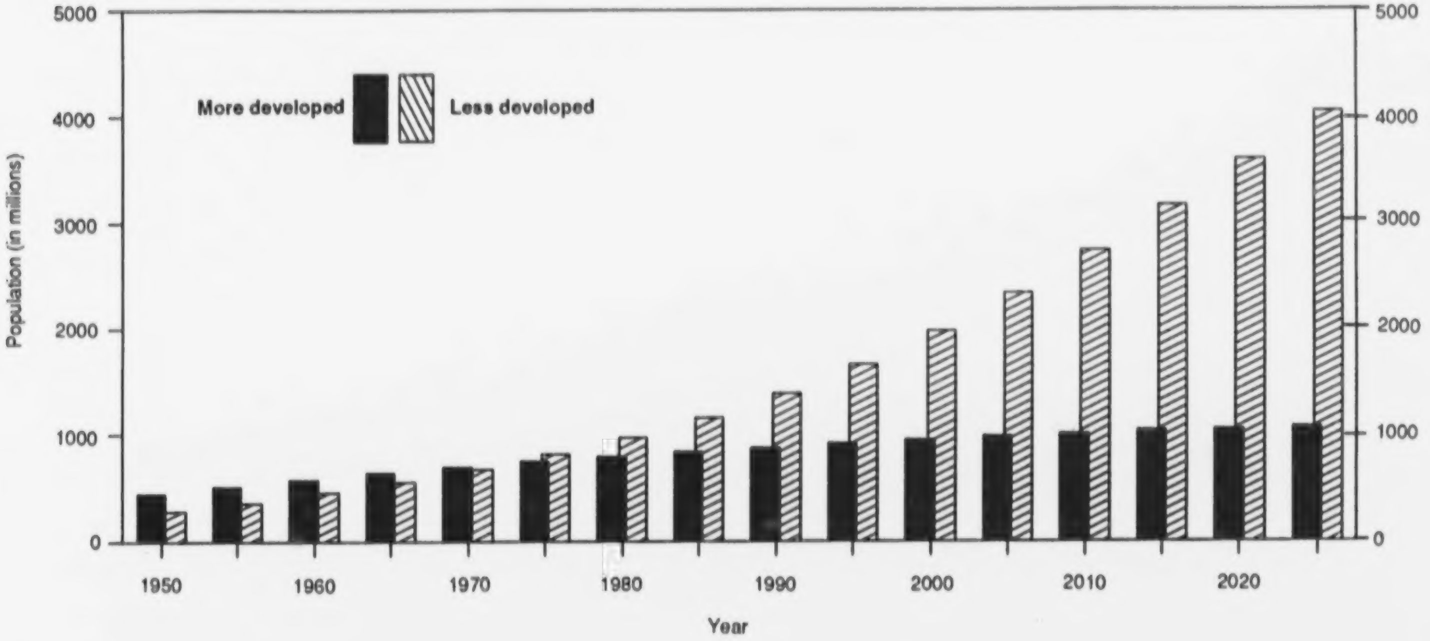
CONTINUING WORLD URBANIZATION

Urban Population in the More Developed and the Less Developed Regions of the World, 1950-2025



Source: United Nations forthcoming publication, The Prospects of World Urbanization, as printed in the UN's Population Newsletter, Number 47, June 1989.

Between 1950 and 2025, the size of the urban population will grow nearly seven-fold, from 730 million to 5.1 billion, while the world population is projected to triple: from 2.5 billion in 1950 to 8.5 billion in 2025.

POPULATIONS OF THE WORLD'S 80 LARGEST URBAN AREAS

1960 to 1985, and Projections for 1990 and 2000

[**In millions.** The 100 largest cities are large urban agglomerations, composed, in most cases, of the central city, adjacent smaller cities and towns, and suburbs. City boundaries depend on local administrative boundaries, population densities, types of economic activity and other characteristics. Rankings depend on the population living within the urban agglomeration boundaries as determined by local and national governments. Rankings would not necessarily be the same if uniform criteria were used. The estimates for the Chinese cities should be considered tentative]

CITIES RANKED BY POPULATION SIZE, 1985	1960	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990, proj.	2000, proj.
Tokyo/Yokohama, Japan	10.7	14.9	16.4	17.7	19.0	20.5	21.3
Mexico City, Mexico	4.9	8.7	11.1	14.0	16.7	19.4	24.4
New York, U.S.	14.2	16.2	15.9	15.6	15.6	15.7	16.1
Sao Paulo, Brazil	4.7	8.1	10.1	12.5	15.5	18.4	23.6
Shanghai, China: Mainland	10.7	11.4	11.6	11.8	12.1	12.6	14.7
Buenos Aires, Argentina	6.7	8.3	9.1	9.9	10.8	11.6	13.1
London, England	10.7	10.6	10.4	10.4	10.5	10.6	10.8
Calcutta, India	5.5	6.9	7.9	9.0	10.3	11.8	15.9
Rio De Janeiro, Brazil	4.9	7.0	8.0	9.0	10.1	11.1	13.0
Seoul, South Korea	2.4	5.3	6.8	8.3	10.1	11.3	13.0
Los Angeles, U.S.	6.5	8.4	8.9	9.5	10.0	10.5	10.9
Osaka/Kobe, Japan	5.8	7.6	8.0	8.7	9.6	10.5	11.2
Greater Bombay, India	4.1	5.8	6.9	8.1	9.5	11.1	15.4
Beijing, China: Mainland	7.3	8.3	8.9	9.1	9.3	9.7	11.5
Moscow, Soviet Union	6.3	7.1	7.6	8.2	8.9	9.4	10.1
Paris, France	7.2	8.3	8.6	8.7	8.8	8.8	8.8
Tianjin, China: Mainland	6.0	6.9	7.4	7.7	8.0	8.4	10.0
Cairo/Giza, Egypt	3.7	5.3	6.1	6.9	7.9	9.1	11.8
Jakarta, Indonesia	2.7	4.3	5.3	6.4	7.8	9.4	13.2
Milan, Italy	4.5	5.5	6.1	6.8	7.5	7.9	8.7
Teheran, Iran	1.9	3.3	4.3	5.6	7.2	9.2	13.7
Manila/Quezon, Philippines	2.3	3.5	5.0	6.0	7.1	8.4	11.5
Delhi, India	2.3	3.5	4.4	5.5	7.0	8.6	12.8
Chicago, U.S.	6.0	6.7	6.5	6.8	6.8	6.9	7.0
Karachi, Pakistan	1.9	3.1	4.0	5.0	6.2	7.7	11.6
Bangkok, Thailand	2.2	3.1	3.8	4.8	5.9	7.2	10.3
Lagos, Nigeria	.8	2.0	3.3	4.5	5.8	7.6	12.5
Lima—Callo, Peru	1.7	2.8	3.6	4.4	5.4	6.5	8.8
Hong Kong, Hong Kong	2.6	3.4	3.9	4.5	5.2	5.4	6.1
Leningrad, Soviet Union	3.5	4.0	4.3	4.7	5.1	5.4	5.8
Madras, India	1.7	3.0	3.6	4.2	4.9	5.7	7.9
Madrid, Spain	2.2	3.4	3.8	4.3	4.8	5.1	5.4
Dacca, Bangladesh	.7	1.5	2.3	3.3	4.8	6.4	11.3
Bogota, Colombia	1.3	2.4	3.1	3.9	4.7	5.6	6.9
Baghdad, Iraq	1.0	2.1	2.7	3.5	4.4	5.4	7.7
Naples, Italy	3.2	3.6	3.8	4.0	4.3	4.3	4.5
Santiago, Chile	2.0	2.8	3.2	3.7	4.2	4.7	5.6
Philadelphia, U.S.	3.6	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.3
Shenyang, China	2.5	3.1	3.5	3.8	4.1	4.5	5.5
Pusan, South Korea	1.2	1.8	2.4	3.1	4.0	4.8	5.8
Detroit, U.S.	3.6	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.9
Bangalore, India	1.2	1.6	2.1	2.8	3.7	4.9	7.7
Rome, Italy	2.3	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.8
Sydney, Australia	2.1	2.7	3.0	3.3	3.6	3.8	4.1
Caracas, Venezuela	1.3	2.1	2.5	2.9	3.5	4.0	4.8
Wuhan, China: Mainland	2.2	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.7	4.5
Lahore, Pakistan	1.3	2.0	2.4	2.9	3.4	4.1	5.9
Katowice, Poland	2.4	2.8	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.9
Guangzhou, China: Mainland	1.9	2.5	2.8	3.1	3.3	3.6	4.5
San Francisco, U.S.	2.4	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.5
Barcelona, Spain	2.0	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.4
Belo Horizonte, Brazil	.9	1.6	2.0	2.5	3.2	3.8	5.0
Toronto, Canada	1.7	2.5	2.8	3.0	3.2	3.3	3.6
Melbourne, Australia	1.9	2.3	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.3
Birmingham, United Kingdom	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1
Ahmedabad, India	1.2	1.7	2.0	2.5	3.0	3.6	5.1
Hyderabad, India	1.2	1.8	2.1	2.5	2.9	3.5	4.9
Istanbul, Turkey	1.5	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.3
Ankara, Turkey	.6	1.3	1.7	2.2	2.9	3.6	5.2
Washington, D.C., U.S.	1.8	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.2
Alexandria, Egypt	1.5	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.9	3.3	4.3
Montreal, Canada	2.0	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9
Houston, U.S.	1.2	1.7	2.0	2.4	2.8	3.2	3.6
Ho Chi Minh Village, Viet Nam	1.3	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.8	3.2	4.4
Athens, Greece	1.8	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.8	2.9	3.2
Chongqing, China: Mainland	2.2	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.9	3.4
Rangoon, Burma	1.0	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.7	3.2	4.5
Boston, U.S.	2.4	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8
Alger, Algeria	.9	1.2	1.6	2.1	2.7	3.4	5.2
Chengdu, China: Mainland	1.1	1.6	2.0	2.4	2.7	3.1	4.0
Casablanca, Morocco	1.1	1.5	1.8	2.2	2.7	3.3	4.6
Porto Alegre, Brazil	1.0	1.5	1.8	2.2	2.7	3.1	3.9
Recife, Brazil	1.2	1.8	2.0	2.3	2.7	3.0	3.6
Dallas, U.S.	1.2	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.7	2.9	3.1
Guadalajara, Mexico	.9	1.5	1.9	2.3	2.7	3.1	3.9
Harbin, China	1.6	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.6
Kiev, Soviet Union	1.2	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.6	2.9	3.4
Kinshasa, Zaire	.5	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.6	3.0	4.4
Singapore, Singapore	1.2	1.8	1.9	2.4	2.6	2.7	3.0
Manchester, United Kingdom	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.6

Source: United Nations, Dept. for International Economic and Social Affairs, New York, NY, *The Prospects of World Urbanization: Revised as of 1984-1985*, forthcoming.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States 1989, Table 1406.

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FOCUS Section

There Are 283 Metro Areas in the U.S. Here are the 37 With One Million or More Population, As Estimated For July 1, 1988

49% of Us Live in These 37 Metropolitan Areas
77% of Us Live in The Total of 283 Metro Areas

Metropolitan Statistical Areas (MSA's), Consolidated Metropolitan Statistical Areas (CMSA's) and Primary Metropolitan Statistical Areas (PMSA's): The general concept of an MSA is one of a large population nucleus together with adjacent communities which have a high degree of social and economic integration with that nucleus. CMSA's are large metropolitan complexes within which individual components, designated as PMSA's, have been defined. MSA's CMSA's, and PMSA's are defined by the Office of Management and Budget as a standard for Federal agencies in the preparation and publication of statistics relating to metropolitan areas. The new terms MSA, CMSA, and PMSA went into effect June 30, 1983, replacing the previous terms SMSA (standard metropolitan statistical area) and SCSA (standard consolidated statistical area). The entire territory of the United States is classified as metropolitan (inside MSA's or CMSA's) or non-metropolitan (outside MSA's or CMSA's). MSA's, CMSA's, and PMSA's are defined in terms of entire counties except in New England, where the definitions are in terms of cities and towns. To summarize data for New England that are available only by counties, New England County Metropolitan Areas (NECMA's) have been defined as a convenience for data users. From time to time, new metropolitan areas are created and the boundaries of others change. As a result, data for metropolitan areas over time may not be comparable and the analysis of historical trends must be made cautiously. For descriptive details, tables showing changes in metropolitan area definitions, and a listing of area titles and components of each metropolitan area, see Appendix II.

1.	**New York-Northern New Jersey-Long Island, NY-NJ-CT**	**18,120,200**
2.	**Los Angeles-Anaheim-Riverside, CA**	**13,769,700**
3.	**Chicago-Gary-Lake County, IL-IN-WI**	**8,180,900**
4.	**San Francisco-Oakland-San Jose, CA**	**6,041,800**
5.	**Philadelphia-Wilmington-Trenton, PA-NJ-DE-MD**	**5,963,300**
6.	**Detroit-Ann Arbor, MI**	**4,620,200**
7.	**Boston-Lawrence-Salem, MA-NH**	**4,109,900**
8.	**Dallas-Fort Worth, TX**	**3,766,100**
9.	**Washington, DC-MD-VA**	**3,734,200**
10.	**Houston-Galveston-Brazoria, TX**	**3,641,500**
11.	**Miami-Fort Lauderdale, FL**	**3,000,500**
12.	**Cleveland-Akron-Lorain, OH**	**2,789,000**
13.	**Atlanta, GA**	**2,736,600**
14.	**St. Louis, MO-IL**	**2,466,700**
15.	**Seattle-Tacoma, WA**	**2,420,800**
16.	**Minneapolis-St. Paul, MN**	**2,387,500**
17.	**San Diego, CA**	**2,370,400**
18.	**Baltimore, MD**	**2,342,500**
19.	**Pittsburgh-Beaver Valley, PA**	**2,284,100**
20.	**Phoenix, AZ**	**2,029,500**
	Clearwater, FL	
21.	**Tampa-St. Petersburg-**	**1,995,100**
22.	**Denver-Boulder, CO**	**1,858,000**
23.	**Cincinnati-Hamilton, OH-KY-IN**	**1,728,500**
24.	**Kansas City, MO-KS**	**1,575,400**
25.	**Milwaukee-Racine, WI**	**1,571,700**
26.	**Portland-Vancouver, OR-WA**	**1,414,200**
27.	**Sacramento, CA**	**1,385,200**
	Newport News, VA	
28.	**Norfolk-Virginia Beach-**	**1,380,200**
29.	**Columbus, OH**	**1,344,300**
30.	**San Antonio, TX**	**1,323,200**
31.	**New Orleans, LA**	**1,306,900**
32.	**Indianapolis, IN**	**1,236,600**
33.	**Buffalo-Niagara Falls, NY**	**1,175,600**
34.	**Providence-Pawtucket-Fall River, RI-MA**	**1,125,400**
35.	**Charlotte-Gastonia-Rock Hill, NC-SC**	**1,112,000**
36.	**Hartford-New Britain-Middletown, CT**	**1,067,600**
37.	**Salt Lake City-Ogden, UT**	**1,065,000**

The fastest growing metro areas, regardless of size:

	1988 Population	Percent Growth
Naples, FL	**138,500**	**+61.1%**
Ocala, FL	**189,800**	**+55.0%**
Fort Pierce, FL	**231,800**	**+53.3%**
Fort Myers-Cape Coral, FL	**309,100**	**+50.6%**
Melbourne-Titusville-Palm Bay, FL	**388,300**	**+42.3%**

	1988 Population	Percent Growth
West Palm Beach-Boca Raton-Delray Beach, FL	**818,500**	**+41.9%%**
Austin, TX	**748,500**	**+39.5%**
Orlando, FL	**971,200**	**+38.8%**
Fort Walton Beach, FL	**150,600**	**+37.0%**
Las Cruces, NM	**132,000**	**+37.0%**

World Eagle tables. Data from U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB89-145, September 8, 1989.

U.S. POPULATION ESTIMATES OF STATES BY BROAD AGE GROUPS AS OF JULY 1, 1988

-- In thousands. Includes Armed Forces residing in each State. --

Region, division, and State	Resident population	Under 5 years	5 to 17 years	18 to 24 years	25 to 44 years	45 to 64 years	65 years and over	Median age
United States	245,807	18,456	45,389	26,664	78,939	45,993	30,367	32.3
Northeast	50,595	3,487	8,589	5,477	15,881	10,293	6,867	33.9
New England	12,963	893	2,149	1,451	4,217	2,516	1,737	33.5
Middle Atlantic	37,631	2,595	6,440	4,025	11,664	7,777	5,130	34.1
Midwest	59,878	4,362	11,254	6,482	18,952	11,215	7,612	32.3
East North Central	42,119	3,056	7,958	4,602	13,350	7,962	5,191	32.2
West North Central	17,759	1,306	3,296	1,880	5,602	3,254	2,421	32.5
South	84,655	6,403	16,093	9,319	26,816	15,648	10,375	32.0
South Atlantic	42,426	3,036	7,517	4,650	13,399	8,275	5,549	33.1
East South Central	15,344	1,087	3,042	1,719	4,761	2,826	1,909	31.8
West South Central	26,885	2,281	5,534	2,950	8,656	4,547	2,917	30.5
West	50,679	4,203	9,452	5,386	17,289	8,836	5,512	31.6
Mountain	13,328	1,138	2,694	1,436	4,419	2,205	1,436	30.7
Pacific	37,351	3,065	6,759	3,950	12,870	6,631	4,077	31.9
New England:								
Maine	1,205	84	220	133	381	226	161	33.0
New Hampshire	1,085	81	194	123	367	198	123	32.1
Vermont	557	40	101	65	188	97	66	31.6
Massachusetts	5,889	400	932	672	1,942	1,136	806	33.5
Rhode Island	993	66	164	112	314	191	146	33.7
Connecticut	3,233	222	538	345	1,026	669	435	34.4
Middle Atlantic:								
New York	17,909	1,275	3,081	1,942	5,590	3,694	2,328	33.8
New Jersey	7,721	529	1,302	820	2,416	1,644	1,009	34.5
Pennsylvania	12,001	791	2,057	1,263	3,658	2,439	1,793	34.4
East North Central:								
Ohio	10,855	774	2,049	1,166	3,381	2,113	1,372	32.6
Indiana	5,556	389	1,072	618	1,754	1,042	680	32.0
Illinois	11,614	859	2,144	1,249	3,725	2,214	1,421	32.4
Michigan	9,240	677	1,776	1,040	2,956	1,714	1,076	31.8
Wisconsin	4,855	357	916	530	1,532	878	641	32.1
West North Central:								
Minnesota	4,307	325	795	461	1,417	769	540	32.1
Iowa	2,834	191	523	300	880	517	423	33.0
Missouri	5,141	370	942	539	1,589	992	710	33.0
North Dakota	667	52	131	73	212	109	90	31.3
South Dakota	713	57	140	75	214	127	100	31.8
Nebraska	1,602	120	303	170	500	288	221	32.3
Kansas	2,495	191	462	262	790	452	338	32.4
South Atlantic:								
Delaware	660	48	118	75	211	131	77	32.0
Maryland	4,622	346	801	524	1,543	912	498	32.7
District of Columbia	617	47	91	65	220	118	77	33.3
Virginia	6,015	430	1,040	708	2,045	1,153	640	32.4
West Virginia	1,876	113	364	202	577	352	268	33.3
North Carolina	6,489	449	1,187	746	2,084	1,249	775	32.3
South Carolina	3,470	259	690	408	1,116	619	379	30.9
Georgia	6,342	496	1,280	732	2,055	1,142	637	30.8
Florida	12,335	848	1,947	1,190	3,548	2,601	2,201	36.4
East South Central:								
Kentucky	3,727	253	728	423	1,176	683	463	31.9
Tennessee	4,895	332	921	536	1,558	937	612	32.7
Alabama	4,102	296	819	456	1,264	755	513	31.7
Mississippi	2,620	206	574	304	763	452	321	30.0
West South Central:								
Arkansas	2,395	173	476	256	692	447	350	32.7
Louisiana	4,408	372	924	504	1,401	727	479	29.9
Oklahoma	3,242	247	635	345	1,020	572	422	31.8
Texas	16,841	1,488	3,498	1,844	5,543	2,801	1,666	30.1
Mountain:								
Montana	805	62	159	81	260	140	103	32.2
Idaho	1,003	81	223	104	320	157	118	30.7
Wyoming	479	39	102	51	180	62	45	29.8
Colorado	3,301	264	605	358	1,212	548	314	31.4
New Mexico	1,507	134	315	164	478	260	155	30.4
Arizona	3,489	299	653	375	1,092	623	447	31.7
Utah	1,690	177	452	195	507	216	141	25.7
Nevada	1,054	82	184	107	370	198	113	32.2
Pacific:								
Washington	4,648	348	842	486	1,641	780	551	32.4
Oregon	2,767	190	496	276	963	460	381	33.3
California	28,314	2,381	5,113	2,998	9,705	5,107	3,011	31.8
Alaska	524	57	110	62	194	80	20	28.7
Hawaii	1,098	89	198	128	367	203	114	31.9

Source: Bureau of the Census, Release CB89-72, May 4, 1989.

STATE POPULATIONS OF BLACKS AND HISPANICS

On June 21, 1989 the U.S. Bureau of the Census issued its first detailed update of the nation's black and Hispanic population since the 1980 census.

New York has the most black residents while California has the most Hispanics and the fastest-growing black population, the Census Bureau estimated.

Hispanics jumped from 14.3 million in 1980 to 17.5 million in 1985. Hispanics accounted for nearly one-fourth of the nation's population growth in the first half of the decade.

State Populations of Blacks and Hispanics

Blacks

State	1985	State	1985	State	1985
New York	2,733,100	Tennessee	765,500	Nevada	61,300
California	2,074,300	Missouri	545,100	Nebraska	52,500
Texas	1,909,500	District of Columbia	436,700	Iowa	45,200
Illinois	1,774,800	Indiana	436,100	Oregon	41,100
Georgia	1,600,400	Arkansas	391,900	Rhode Island	33,600
Florida	1,565,100	Kentucky	263,900	New Mexico	28,700
North Carolina	1,392,300	Massachusetts	258,000	Hawaii	23,200
Louisiana	1,348,400	Connecticut	243,800	Alaska	17,600
Michigan	1,242,900	Oklahoma	227,600	Utah	11,800
Ohio	1,136,400	Wisconsin	204,200	New Hampshire	4,900
Pennsylvania	1,101,700	Kansas	136,900	Maine	3,600
Virginia	1,090,700	Washington	122,400	Wyoming	3,600
Maryland	1,076,100	Colorado	120,300	North Dakota	3,100
Alabama	1,054,800	Delaware	106,100	Idaho	2,900
New Jersey	1,024,700	Arizona	91,500	South Dakota	2,500
South Carolina	1,011,700	West Virginia	63,900	Montana	2,000
Mississippi	948,600	Minnesota	63,700	Vermont	1,800

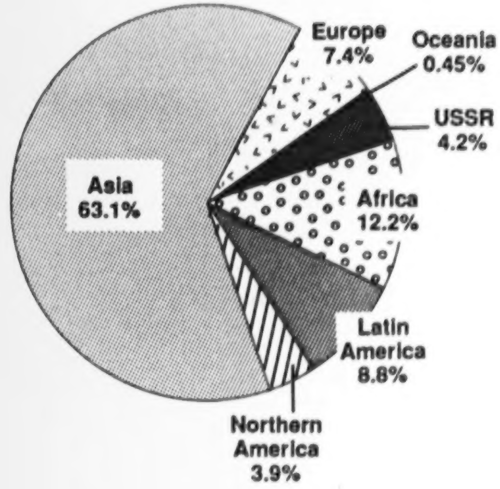
Hispanics

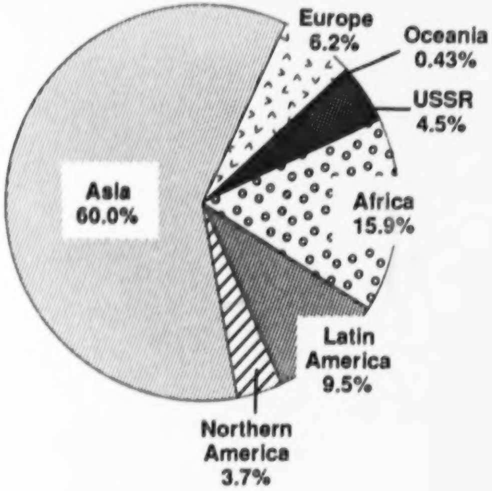
State	1985	State	1985	State	1985
California	5,872,500	Indiana	82,600	South Carolina	20,100
Texas	3,689,600	Oregon	76,000	Rhode Island	19,700
New York	1,878,800	Hawaii	72,300	Alabama	18,300
Florida	1,102,100	Maryland	71,400	District of Columbia	18,200
Illinois	754,900	Utah	70,600	Tennessee	18,200
New Jersey	573,200	Kansas	69,900	Kentucky	14,300
New Mexico	550,600	Oklahoma	69,800	Arkansas	13,500
Arizona	533,200	Nevada	69,700	Mississippi	11,700
Colorado	383,500	Wisconsin	66,300	Alaska	11,500
Pennsylvania	158,500	Missouri	48,300	Montana	10,800
Michigan	155,200	Georgia	47,700	Delaware	10,000
Massachusetts	154,100	Idaho	41,800	West Virginia	7,900
Washington	142,000	North Carolina	38,900	New Hampshire	5,700
Connecticut	139,300	Minnesota	33,500	Maine	4,400
Ohio	107,700	Nebraska	29,900	South Dakota	3,700
Louisiana	98,400	Wyoming	26,500	Vermont	3,700
Virginia	87,000	Iowa	25,800	North Dakota	3,400

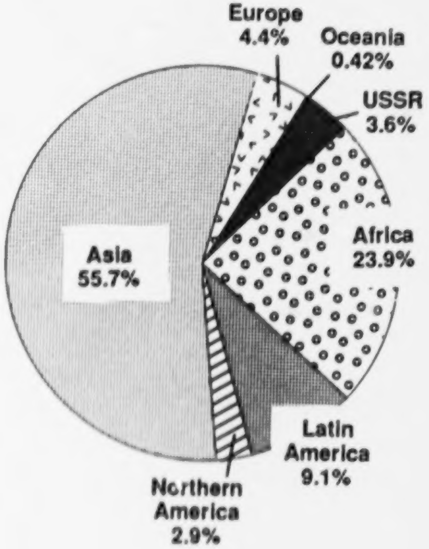
Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census June 21, 1989, as cited in The Boston Globe, June 21, 1989. P.8.

WHERE THE YOUTH OF THE WORLD ARE, AND PROJECTIONS FOR YEAR 2000 AND YEAR 2025

--(Medium Variant) --







YEAR 1990

World	
Number of Youth	1,011,082,000
Annual Growth Rate	1.4
Percent of World Population	19.1%
More Developed Regions	
Number of Youth	179,146,000
Annual Growth Rate	-0.8
Percent of These Regions	14.9%
Less Developed Regions	
Number of Youth	831,936,000
Annual Growth Rate	2.0
Percent of These Regions	20.4%

YEAR 2000

World	
Number of Youth	1,069,033,000
Annual Growth Rate	0.6
Percent of World Population	17.1%
More Developed Regions	
Number of Youth	172,597,000
Annual Growth Rate	-0.4
Percent of These Regions	13.7%
Less Developed Regions	
Number of Youth	896,435,000
Annual Growth Rate	0.7
Percent of These Regions	18.0%

YEAR 2025

World	
Number of Youth	1,358,212,000
Annual Growth Rate	1.0
Percent of World Population	16.0%
More Developed Regions	
Number of Youth	166,084,000
Annual Growth Rate	-0.2
Percent of These Regions	12.3%
Less Developed Regions	
Number of Youth	1,192,129,000
Annual Growth Rate	1.1
Percent of These Regions	16.8%

World Eagle charts. Data from United Nations. Department of Economic and Social Affairs. World Population Prospects 1988. New York 1989. (Sales No. E.88.XIII.7) Table 2.16 Page 58.

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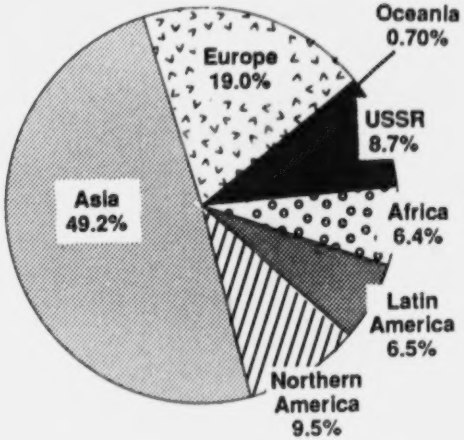
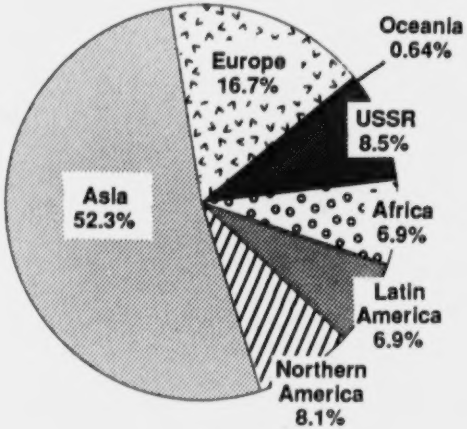
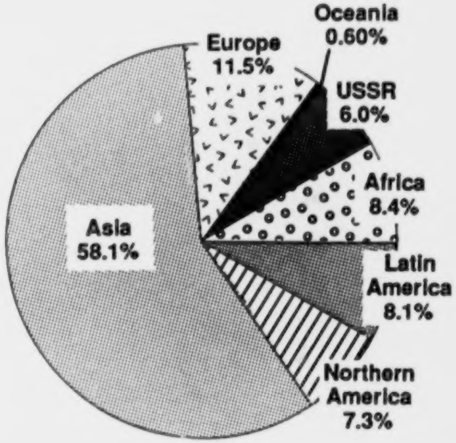
INCREASING NUMBERS OF ELDERLY, AND THEIR SHARES OF POPULATION, ARE THE RESULT OF IMPROVED HEALTH CARE AND REDUCED FERTILITY RATES

--(Medium Variant) --







YEAR 1990

World	
Elderly Population (60+)	487,873,000
Annual Growth Rate	2.4
Percent of World Population	9.2%
More Developed Regions	
Elderly Population (60+)	205,726,000
Annual Growth Rate	1.7
Percent of These Regions	17.1%
Less Developed Regions	
Elderly Population (60+)	282,147,000
Annual Growth Rate	3.0
Percent of These Regions	6.9%

YEAR 2000

World	
Elderly Population (60+)	612,283,000
Annual Growth Rate	2.8
Percent of World Population	9.8%
More Developed Regions	
Elderly Population (60+)	235,666,000
Annual Growth Rate	1.4
Percent of These Regions	18.7%
Less Developed Regions	
Elderly Population (60+)	376,617,000
Annual Growth Rate	2.8
Percent of These Regions	7.6%

YEAR 2025

World	
Elderly Population (60+)	1,201,238,000
Annual Growth Rate	2.7
Percent of World Population	14.8%
More Developed Regions	
Elderly Population (60+)	342,743,000
Annual Growth Rate	1.5
Percent of These Regions	25.3%
Less Developed Regions	
Elderly Population (60+)	858,495,000
Annual Growth Rate	3.3
Percent of These Regions	12.1%

World Eagle charts. Data from United Nations. Department of Economic and Social Affairs. World Population Prospects 1988. New York 1989. (Sales No. E.88.XIII.7) Table 2.17 Page 60.

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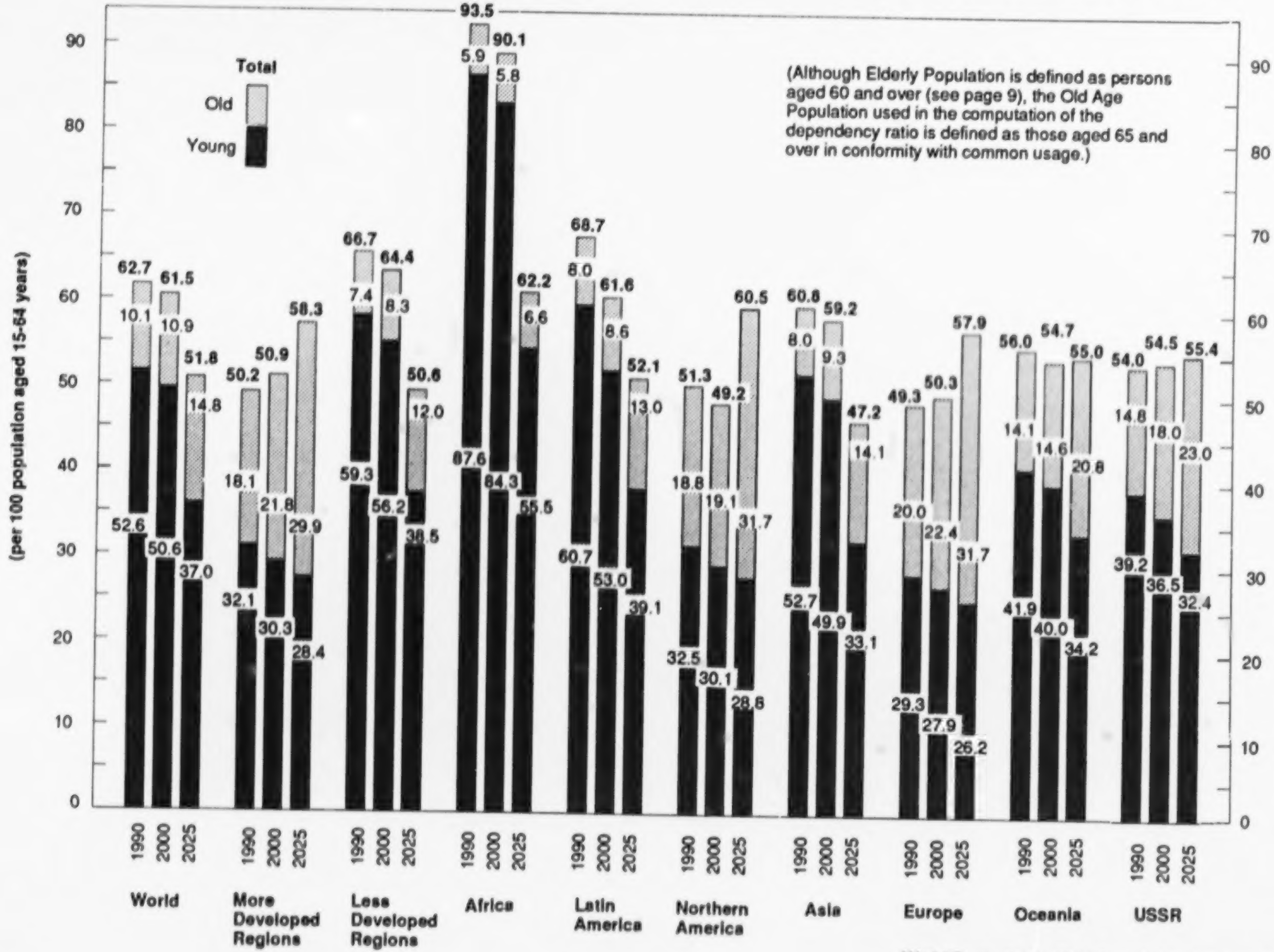
Dependency Ratios For Total, Young (Under Age 15) And Old (Aged 65 And Over) Population, Medium Variant, For Major Regions Of The World, Years 1990, 2000, 2025



(Although Elderly Population is defined as persons aged 60 and over (see page 9), the Old Age Population used in the computation of the dependency ratio is defined as those aged 65 and over in conformity with common usage.)

World Eagle charts. Data from United Nations. Department of Economic and Social Affairs. World Population Prospects 1988. New York 1989. (Sales No. E.88.XIII.7) Table 2.18 Page 61.

FOCUS Section

STANFORD UNIVERSITY ECOLOGIST URGES PRESIDENT BUSH TO PUT POPULATION ISSUES AT THE TOP OF THE AMERICAN AGENDA

The following article is reprinted in full from the Stanford University Campus Report, September 20, 1989. P.4.

President George Bush is well informed on population issues and "should have the courage to put them at the top of the American agenda," Stanford ecologist Paul R. Ehrlich told a conference on "The Global Environment: Are We Overreacting?" at the Smithsonian Institution in Washington, D.C., Saturday, Sept. 16.

The president pioneered congressional interest in population issues 20 years ago, Ehrlich said. "I met him when he chaired the special Republican Task Force on Population and Earth Resources in the late 1960s. Since then, the world's population has grown by 1.7 billion, more people than were alive at the time of the Civil War. Each year, 94 million people are added, the population equivalent of a new United Kingdom, Ireland, Iceland, Belgium, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Finland annually," Ehrlich said.

That growth is occurring on a planet that is already overpopulated by the simple standard that today's population can't be supported on "income," Ehrlich said. "To maintain its burgeoning population, humanity is destroying its 'capital' — fossil fuels, rich mineral ores, and, most importantly, fertile topsoils, ice-age groundwater and biodiversity."

Unprecendented overpopulation and continuing population growth are making substantial contributions to the destruction of Earth's life-support systems, and thus limiting humanity's ability to live on income, Ehrlich said. "They are major factors in problems as diverse as global warming, African famines, acid rain, the threat of nuclear war, the garbarge crisis and the danger of epidemics."

Rather than "overreacting" to this most critical problem, the United States is hardly doing anything to help solve it, Ehrlich said. "Overpopulation in rich countries like ours is more serious from the standpoint of Earth's habitability than rapid growth in poor countries.

"Rapid population growth, however, is an important reason the poor stay poor. And overpopulation in poor nations will magnify their destructive impact on the environment as they struggle to develop. Thus both rich and poor must limit their reproduction."

Ehrlich predicted that the population explosion will end soon. "What remains to be seen is whether the end will come humanely through birth control or cruelly through rises in death rates.

"Solving the population problem will not automatically eliminate other human woes such as environmental degradation, racism, sexism, religious prejudice, or gross economic inequity," he said.

"But if we don't solve it, we have no hope of solving the others. George Bush summed it up beautifully in 1973 in the introduction to Phyllis Piotrow's book, *World Population Crisis:* 'Success in the population field . . . may, in turn, determine whether we can resolve successfully the other great questions of peace, prosperity, and individual rights that face the world.' "

Bush then also understood the complexity of successfully solving the population problem, Ehrlich said. Bush wrote: "One fact is clear: in a world of nearly 4 billion people . . . major world problems like population and environmental protection will have to be handled by large and complex organizations representing many nations and many different points of view."

"The world population is now over 5.2 billion, and today George Bush is the CEO of just such an organization — one that for more than eight years has disastrously neglected the population component of the human predicament," Ehrlich said.

"We must now hope that he has the courage to tackle this crucial question directly, as well as addressing the environmental problems arising from overpopulation. We must also give him support if he does. No other initiative by the U.S. government could be more important for the well-being of future generations." ◆

A CALL TO INVEST IN WOMEN IN THE DEVELOPING WORLD

Women are at the heart of development. They control most of the non-money economy (subsistence agriculture, bearing and raising children, domestic labour) and take an important part in the money economy (trading, the "informal sector", wage employment). Everywhere in the world women have two jobs -- around the home and outside it.

Much of this work is unrecognized and those who do it can expect no support. Their health suffers, their work suffers, their children suffer. Development itself is held back as a result.

This Report demonstrates some of the costs of ignoring the needs of women: uncontrolled population growth, high infant and child mortality, a weakened economy, ineffective agriculture, a deteriorating environment, a generally divided society and a poorer quality of life for all. For girls and women it means unequal opportunities, a higher level of risk and a life determined by fate and the decisions of others rather than choice.

Many women, especially in developing countries, have few choices in life outside marriage and children. They tend to have large families because that is expected of them. Investing in women means widening their choice of strategies and reducing their dependence on children for status and support. Family planning is one of the most important investments, because it represents the freedom from which other freedoms flow....

Much of this damage can be attributed to the reckless use and misuse of resources in the richer parts of the world. But much can be traced to the combination of poverty and rapid population growth. In order to survive, the growing numbers of poor people in developing countries are forced into a ferocious assault on their environment. In the process they use up resources which could sustain them and their families in the future. In the rural areas of developing countries, women are responsible for water, fuelwood, and much of agriculture. Their cumulative activities have profound effects on the world's water supply, tree cover and farmland.

A deteriorating rural environment is one cause of urban growth. Earth is rapidly becoming an urban planet. By the year 2000, half the world's population will live in cities. Massive urban consumption of resources and production of waste are already major sources of environmental pollution and degradation.

Currently 5.2 billion, world population will increase by over 90 million each year until the end of the century. All but six million of each year's increase will live in developing countries. According to the United Nations, the population at the end of this century will be about 6.25 billion; about 8.5 billion by 2025. It may stop growing at 10 billion, about double its present size, perhaps a century from now.

This projection is quite optimistic; it assumes that fertility in the developing world as a whole will drop by a third in the next 30 to 40 years. This in turn assumes that a very large number of women in developing countries will start to use family planning in the next two decades.

The figure for contraceptive use today is about 465 million or 45 per cent. Regional totals are 14 per cent in Africa, 50 per cent in Asia and 56 per cent in Latin America. With a user rate of 74 per cent in 1985, China's contribution to the total is substantial. If China's 146 million users were excluded, the user rate for the rest of the developing world would drop to around 30 per cent.

To secure the projected drop in fertility, the number of women using family planning will have to rise to 730 million (58 per cent) in 2000 and finally to 1.218 billion (71 per cent or the present level in industrial countries) by 2025. In sub-Saharan Africa this would mean a 10-fold increase in family planning users by 2025.

If this does not happen, the United Nations estimates that population will continue to increase, by larger numbers and for longer. Their less optimistic projection, for example, shows a population already approaching 10 billion by 2025: by that time Africa's population would be nearly 2 billion and Asia's nearly 5.5, bigger than the population of the whole world today. The eventual stable total could be 14 billion.

These figures alone, and their implications for the global future, should be enough to make it clear that the population crisis is a matter for action now, not next century. By then it will be too late. ❖

Source; United Nations Population Fund. 1988 Report. July 1989. Pp. 7,9, and 10.

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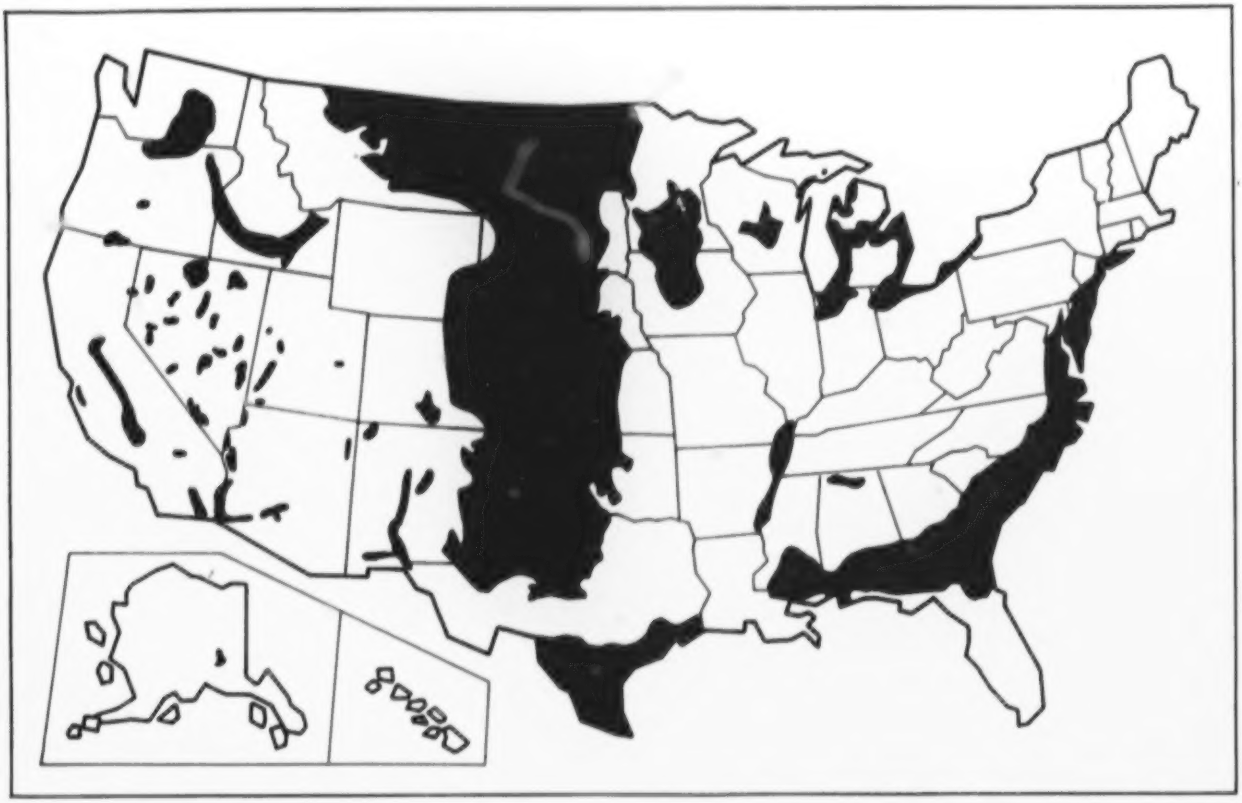
CROPLAND AREAS OF THE U.S. THAT HAVE THE HIGHEST POTENTIAL FOR WIND EROSION



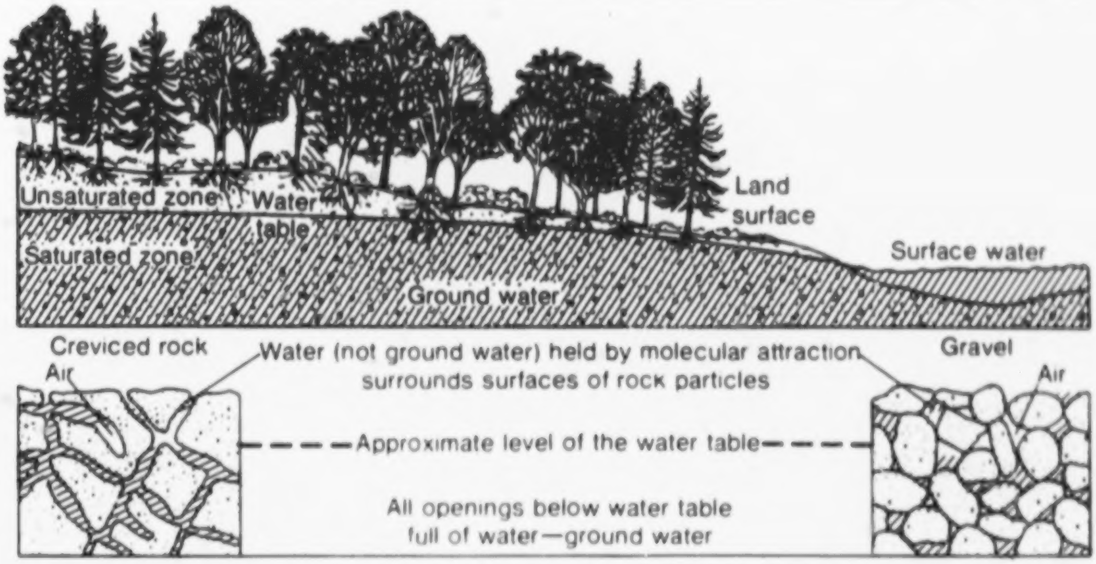
"Few regions of the United States are entirely safe from wind erosion. Wherever the soil surface is loose and dry, vegetation sparse or absent, and the wind sufficiently strong, soil erosion will occur unless control measures are applied. Erosion by wind in the United States is generally most severe in the Great Plains. Other major regions affected are the Columbia River plains, some parts of the Southwest and the Colorado Basin, the muck and sandy areas of the Great Lakes region, and the sands of the Gulf, Pacific, and Atlantic seaboards.

"In some areas, the main problem caused by wind erosion is crop damage. Some crops, including many vegetables and specialty crops, are especially vulnerable to damage by blowing soil. Even low rates of wind erosion may cause short-term economic loss in areas where these crops are grown.

"...the dust high in the air is what most people notice. While this "dirty air" contains particles of the most valuable portions of the topsoil -- organic matter and clay -- it also contains only a small percentage of the soil moved by wind erosion. Most of the soil movement is within a foot of the ground. Under field conditions, soil begins to move when the wind velocity reaches about 13 miles per hour (mph) at 1 foot above the ground surface. Depending on their size and the strength of the wind, soil particles move in three different ways: saltation, suspension, and surface creep..."

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Soil Conservation Service. Soil Erosion By Wind. 1989.

HOW GROUND WATER OCCURS


Unsaturated zone
Water table
Land surface
Saturated zone
Surface water
Ground water
Creviced rock
Air
Water (not ground water) held by molecular attraction surrounds surfaces of rock particles
Gravel
Air
Approximate level of the water table
All openings below water table full of water—ground water

How ground water occurs in rocks.

It is difficult to visualize water underground. Some people believe that ground water collects in underground lakes or flows in underground rivers. In fact, ground water is simply the subsurface water that fully saturates pores or cracks in soils and rocks. Ground water is replenished by precipitation and, depending on the local climate and geology, is unevenly distributed in both quantity and quality. When rain falls or snow melts, some of the water evaporates, some is transpired by plants, some flows overland and collects in streams, and some infiltrates into the pores or cracks of the soil and rocks. The first water that enters the soil replaces water that has been evaporated or used by plants during a preceding dry period. Between the land surface and the aquifer water is a zone that hydrologists call the *unsaturated zone*. In this unsaturated zone, there usually is at least a little water, mostly in smaller openings of the soil and rock; the larger openings usually contain air instead of water. After a significant rain, the zone may be almost saturated; after a long dry spell, it may be almost dry. Some water is held in the unsaturated zone by *molecular attraction*, and it will not flow toward or enter a well. Similar forces hold enough water in a wet towel to make it feel damp after it has stopped dripping.

After the water requirements for plant and soil are satisfied, any excess water will infiltrate to the *water table*—the top of the zone below which openings in rocks are saturated. Below the water table, all the openings in the rocks are full of water that moves horizontally through the aquifer to streams, springs, or wells from which water is being withdrawn. Natural refilling of aquifers at depth is a slow process because ground water moves slowly through the unsaturated zone and the aquifer. The rate of recharge is also an important consideration. It has been estimated, for example, that if the aquifer that underlies the High Plains of Texas and New Mexico—an area of slight precipitation—was emptied, it would take centuries to refill the aquifer at the present small rate of replenishment. In contrast, a shallow aquifer in an area of substantial precipitation may be replenished almost immediately.

Source: U.S. Department of the Interior. U.S. Geological Survey. Ground Water. 1986.

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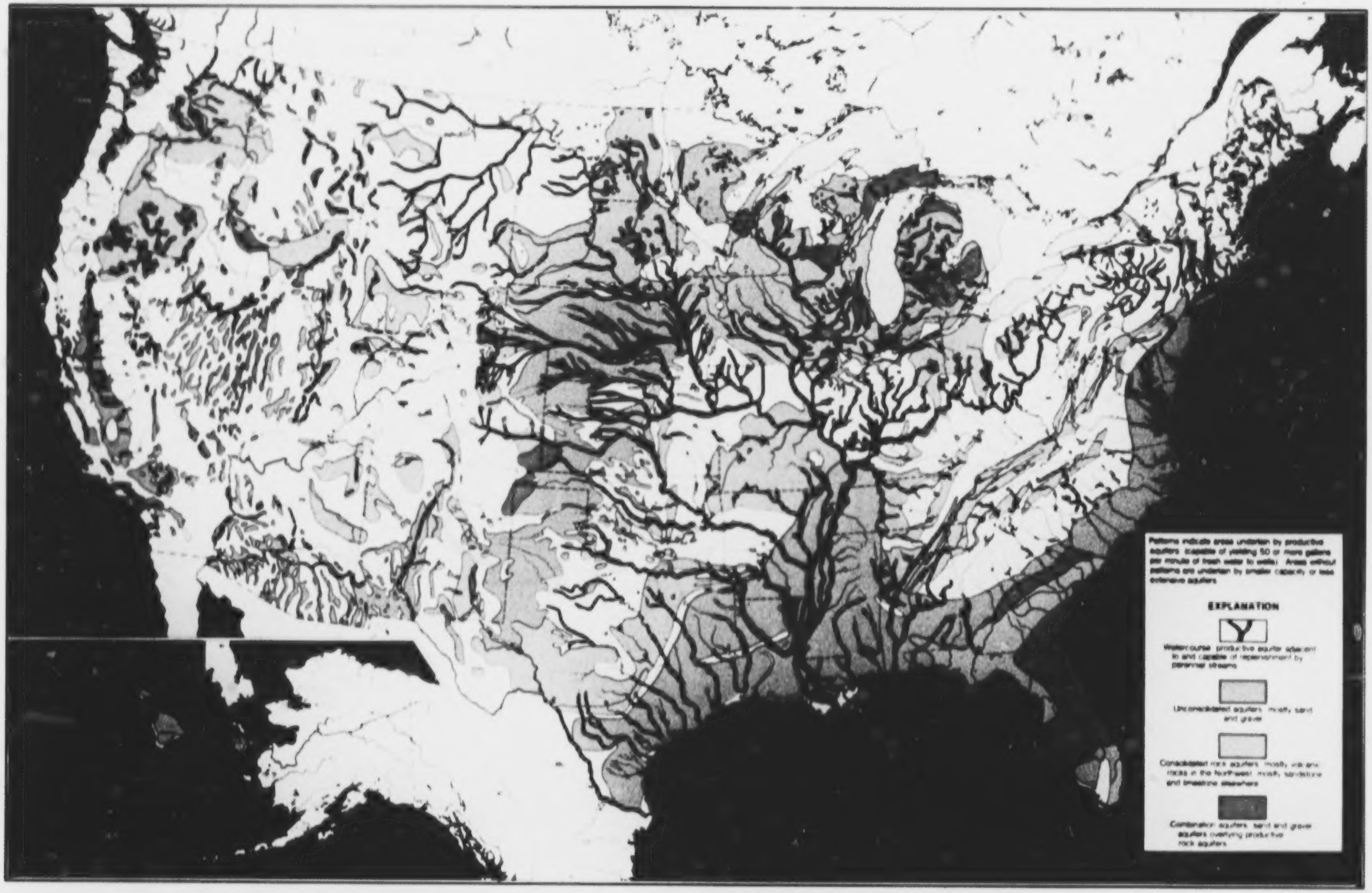
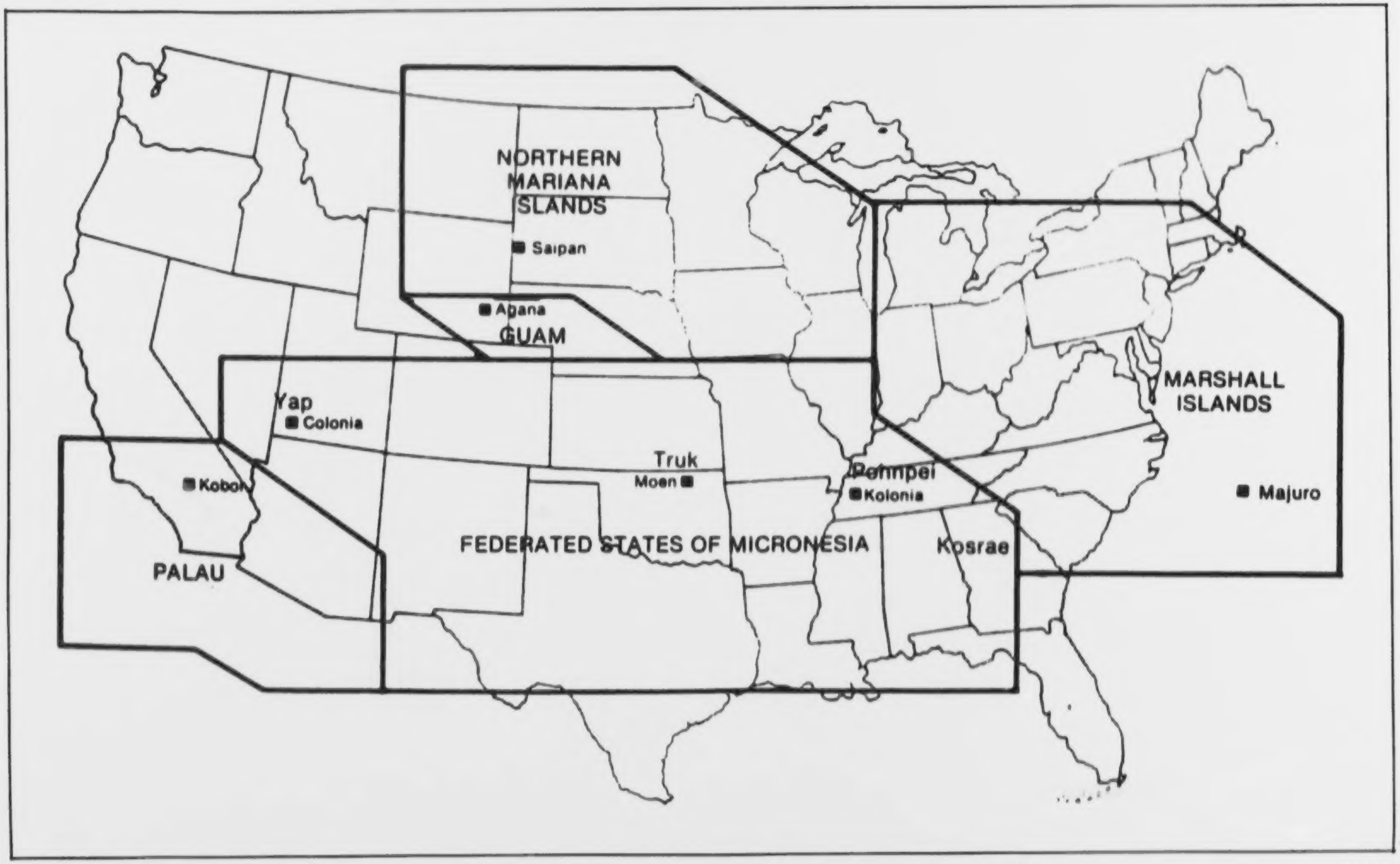
MAJOR GROUND WATER AREAS OF THE UNITED STATES


Patterns indicate areas underlain by productive aquifers capable of yielding 50 or more gallons per minute of fresh water to wells. Areas without patterns are underlain by smaller capacity or less extensive aquifers
EXPLANATION
Watercourse: productive aquifer adjacent to and capable of replenishment by perennial streams
Unconsolidated aquifers: mostly sand and gravel
Consolidated rock aquifers: mostly volcanic rocks in the Northwest; mostly sandstone and limestone elsewhere
Combination aquifers: sand and gravel aquifers overlying productive rock aquifers

Source: U.S. Department of the Interior. U.S. Geological Survey. Ground Water. 1986.

MICRONESIA AND THE CONTIGUOUS UNITED STATES: A COMPARISON OF SIZE


NORTHERN
MARIANA
ISLANDS
Saipan
Agana
GUAM
Yap
Colonia
Kobor
PALAU
Truk
Moen
Pohnpei
Kolonia
Kosrae
FEDERATED STATES OF MICRONESIA
MARSHALL
ISLANDS
Majuro

SOURCE. Adapted from H F Nufer, *Micronesia Under American Rule An Evaluation of the Strategic Trusteeship (1947-1977)* (Hicksville, NY Exposition Press, 1978)

Source: United States Congress Office of Technology Assessment. Integrated Renewable Resource Management for U.S. Insular Areas. June 1987. P.5.

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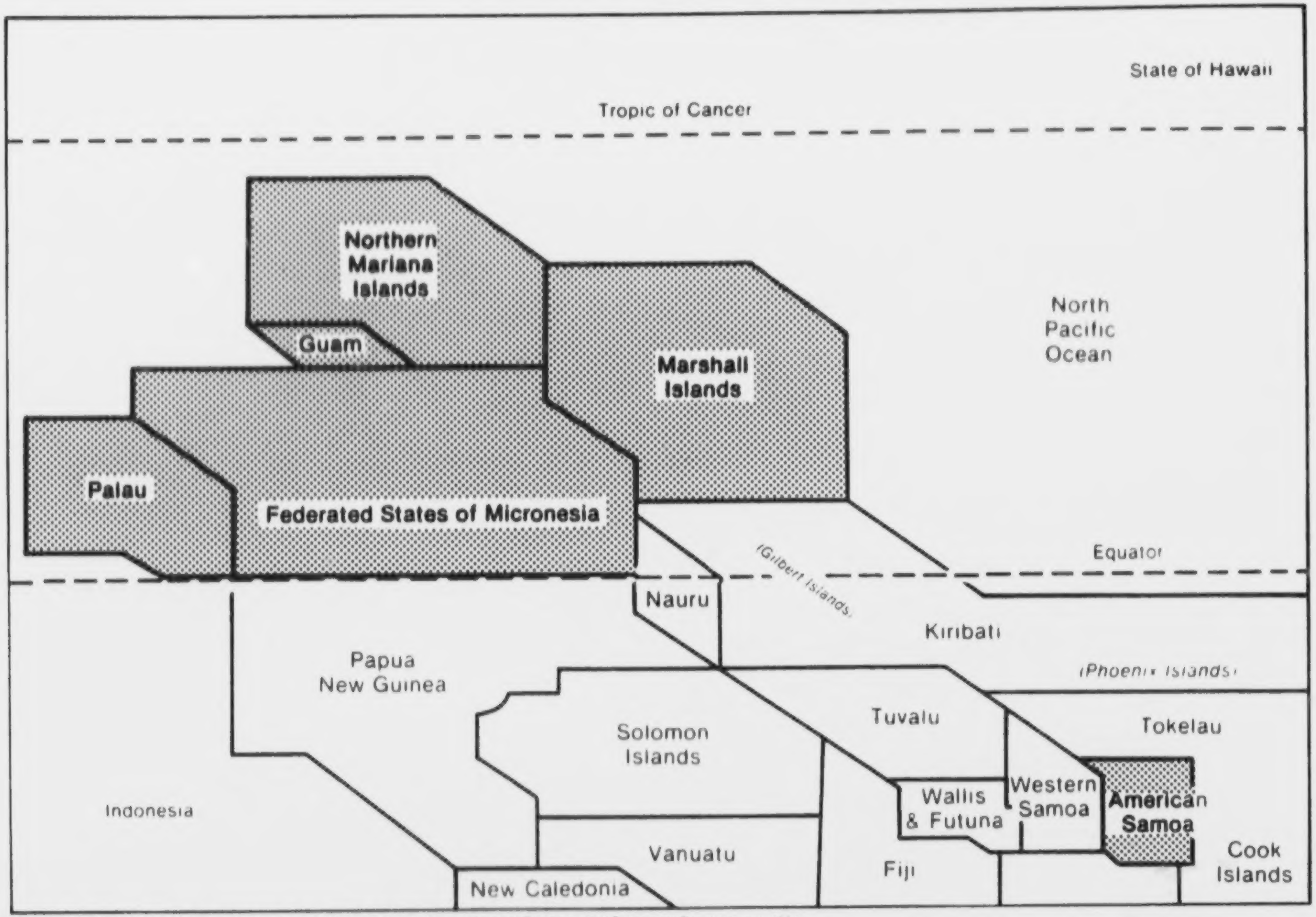
U.S.-AFFILIATED PACIFIC ISLANDS AND NEIGHBORING STATES


State of Hawaii
Tropic of Cancer
Northern Mariana Islands
Guam
Marshall Islands
North Pacific Ocean
Palau
Federated States of Micronesia
Equator
(Gilbert Islands)
Nauru
Kiribati
(Phoenix Islands)
Papua New Guinea
Solomon Islands
Tuvalu
Tokelau
Indonesia
Wallis & Futuna
Western Samoa
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Vanuatu
Fiji
New Caledonia

SOURCE Adapted from a map prepared by the State of Hawaii Department of Planning and Economic Development 1984

Source: United States Congress Office of Technology Assessment. Integrated Renewable Resource Management for U.S. Insular Areas. June 1987.P.4.

PROFILES

Britain To Be Prosecuted On Its Drinking Water

The European Commission announced September 20 that it will prosecute Britain before the European Court in Luxembourg for failing to comply with an order to clean its "unsatisfactory and dangerous" drinking water.

The Boston Globe
September 21, 1989. P.7

Bounties Offered For Truant Students

PTA members in Oklahoma City in September were acting as bounty hunters, collecting rewards for ferreting out young people who had not started schools.

The Boston Globe
September 21, 1989. P.12.

The European Community Airs Plan To Aid Hungary, Poland

A spokesman for the European Community said on September 26 that the EC hopes to spend $325 million next year to help Hungary and Poland reform their ailing economies.

Reuters, as reported in The Boston Globe, September 27, 1989. P.11.

Soviet Union Calls for Binding World Court

The Soviet Union October 6 called for a treaty giving the World Court binding authority to settle international disputes. Currently, decisions by the UN World Court at the Hague are only advisory unless a nation agrees to the court's authority.

The Boston Globe
October 7, 1989. P.40.

Plastic Trash To Keep Out Highway Noise, Fumes

The world's first insulating wall made entirely of plastic wastes is currently being constructed in Cologne, according to a recent announcement by Rhineland municipal authorities. When finished, the wall will be three meters (9.8 feet) high and 320 meters (1,050 feet) long and will consist of 50 truck-loads of plastic bottles, yogurt containers and plastic foil, weighing a total of 100,000 kilograms (110.25 tons). The barrier, which will cost approximately DM480,000 to construct, will protect the Vogelsang section of the city against the noise and automobile exhaust emanating from a nearby four-lane city highway.

Municipal authorities point out that the wall, which is to be surrounded by plants and bushes, will solve several environmental problems at once. The previously unusable plastic waste is being ground into smaller pieces at a mill, heated and poured into molds. the finished product forms the building components for the wall. The authorities estimate that on average some 1.96 million tons of plastic waste are disposed of annually by households, business and industry throughout the Federal Republic, excluding Berlin (West). The local leaders also said the new wall will help in the disposal of the municipalities' growing compost heaps since the barrier is being filled with the organic waste.

German Information Center, New York, New York. The Week in Germany, April 28, 1989.

An Address to Note:

Sister Cities International
120 South Payne Street
Alexandria VA 22314
Phone: (703) 836-3535

YOUTH, MENTAL RETARDATION, AND THE DEATH PENALTY

By Elizabeth B. Bazan. Reprinted from CRS Review (Congressional Research Service, The Library of Congress), September 1989, pages 17-19.

The Supreme Court concluded that the Eighth Amendment did not preclude the imposition of the death penalty upon offenders who were 16 or 17 years old at the time they committed their capital crimes. Nor did it categorically foreclose capital punishment of mildly or moderately retarded defendants.

During the past term the Supreme Court considered, in the consolidated cases of *Stanford* v. *Kentucky* and *Wilkins* v. *Missouri*, the constitutionality of death sentences imposed upon individuals who had been ages 17 and 16, respectively, when they committed their capital offenses. Both petitioners argued that capital punishment of those who were juveniles when they committed the crimes in question violated the Eighth Amendment prohibition against cruel and unusual punishment. In *Penry* v. *Lynaugh*, the Court applied Eighth Amendment principles to the capital sentence of a mentally retarded man who had been abused as a child. The death sentences of Stanford and Wilkins were affirmed, while that of Penry was reversed and remanded.

Juvenile Death Penalty

In *Stanford*, Justice Scalia wrote the plurality opinion for himself, Chief Justice Rehnquist, and Justices White and Kennedy. He concluded that the Eighth Amendment did not foreclose death sentences for defendants who committed their capital crimes at ages 16 or 17. He observed that such sentences would not have been considered cruel and unusual when the Bill of Rights was adopted, and then considered whether they were "contrary to the 'evolving standards of decency that mark the progress of a maturing society.'" He noted that evidence of such evolving standards should be drawn from American societal indicators.

Justice Scalia examined State and Federal laws and jury decisions regarding capital punishment for juveniles in these age categories. In concluding that the evidence of a national consensus against capital punishment for such juveniles was inadequate, he relied upon the fact that 15 of the 37 States that have capital punishment precluded its imposition upon 16-year-olds, while 12 foreclosed its imposition upon 17-year-olds. Justice Scalia found the enactment of the Anti-Drug Abuse Act of 1988, which limited capital punishment for certain drug-related crimes to those offenders who are age 18 or older, unpersuasive to demonstrate congressional views that the death penalty for juveniles was inappropriate and merely indicative of a congressional consensus that capital punishment for juveniles in this limited class of offenders was unacceptable. He found more significant the Federal law permitting 16- and 17-year-olds, upon appropriate findings under 18 U.S.C. Section 5032, to be tried and punished as adults for all Federal offenses, including capital offenses absent a statute precluding such punishment.

Justice Scalia acknowledged that a substantial statistical discrepancy existed between the proportion of juveniles committing capital crimes for whom the death penalty was sought and who received death sentences, and the proportion of adults committing capital crimes who received death sentences. However, to him, this did not establish that capital punishment for juveniles was categorically unacceptable to prosecutors and juries but, rather, suggested that they believed it should *rarely* be imposed upon such offenders.

He found irrelevant laws which set 18 or older as the legal age for activities like driving, drinking alcoholic beverages, or voting. He also refused to consider public opinion polls, views of interest groups and professional associations, or any "socioscientific" and "ethicoscientific" evidence that such punishments would have little deterrent effect and that 16- and 17-year-olds lacked sufficient moral responsibility, due to their level of psychological and emotional development. He left judgments based upon these criteria to legislators.

Justice O'Connor, concurring in part and in the judgment, agreed that no national consensus existed rejecting the execution of 16- or 17-year-old capital murderers, and that the death sentences should be affirmed. However, she stated that the Court, in Eighth Amendment jurisprudence, should also determine whether the punishment imposed was proportional to the blameworthiness of the defendant.

Execution of the Mentally Retarded

In *Penry* v. *Lynaugh* the Court considered the constitutional validity of a death sentence imposed under a Texas capital sentencing scheme upon a mildly to moderately retarded defendant who had been abused as a child. Once again, the Court was strongly divided on the issues and the reasoning in the opinions on the case.

continued ⟶

Elizabeth B. Bazan is a legislative attorney with the CRS American Law Division.

DEATH PENALTY continued

Penry raised two issues dealing with the effect of his mental retardation upon his capital sentencing. There had been no jury instruction regarding consideration of the evidence on his mental retardation or history of childhood abuse in mitigation of sentence, either in responding to the required question as to whether he had acted "deliberately" or in determining his moral culpability outside the scope of the special verdict questions. Penry argued, therefore, that there was no adequate mechanism available to the jury to express a view that the mitigating factors warranted a sentence other than death. Justice O'Connor, writing for herself and Justices Brennan, Marshall, Blackmun, and Stevens, agreed, finding the Texas sentencing scheme, as applied in Penry's case, violated Eighth and Fourteenth Amendment guarantees. She found that there was no opportunity for the sentencing jury to make an individualized assessment of the appropriateness of the death penalty to the level of personal culpability of the capital defendant, and there was no opportunity for the jury to express "its reasoned moral response" to the mitigating evidence in making its sentencing decision. Penry's death sentence was reversed and his case remanded for resentencing.

Further, the Court held that its interpretation of the Texas sentencing scheme did not create a "new rule". Under the Court's decision in *Teague* v. *Lane* (1989) "new rules" could not be applied or announced in cases on collateral review unless they fit within one of two exceptions: the rule placed "certain kinds of primary, private individual conduct beyond the power of criminal lawmaking authority to proscribe" or it required observance of procedures "implicit in the concept of ordered liberty."

However, a majority of the Court felt Penry's second argument, that the Eighth Amendment precluded capital punishment of mentally retarded defendants, if accepted, would have required a "new rule." Therefore, the Court first considered whether such a rule could be applied retroactively. Under *Teague*, a new rule may not be applied retroactively to defendants on collateral review unless it fits within an exception. The first exception dealt with "rules forbidding criminal punishment of certain primary conduct" or "rules prohibiting a certain category of punishment for a class of defendants because of their status or offense." As this covered the new rule Penry sought, the Court then examined the merits of the claim. Justice O'Connor, writing for herself, the Chief Justice, and Justices Scalia, White, and Kennedy, concluded that no national consensus against the execution of mentally retarded capital offenders had been demonstrated, such that the Eighth Amendment would prohibit such executions. Justice O'Connor appeared to suggest that the Eighth Amendment may bar capital punishment for profoundly or severely retarded individuals who lack the capacity to appreciate the wrongfulness of their conduct, although she opined that the presence of the insanity defense made it unlikely that such persons would be convicted or punished for criminal acts.

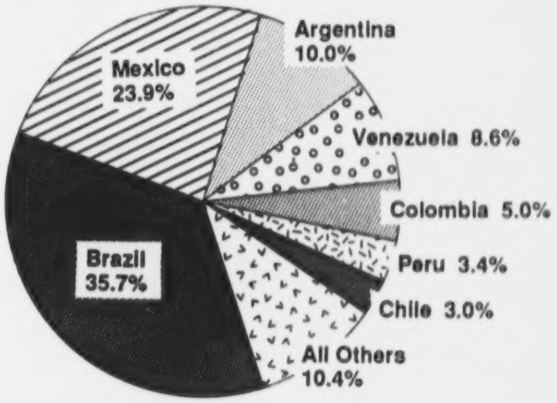
Future Directions

The strong divisions among the members of the Court make predictions in the capital punishment field somewhat speculative. However, it seems likely that death sentences for juveniles who were ages 16 or 17 when they committed their capital offenses will withstand Eighth Amendment challenges based purely on the age of the defendant, absent a shift in State and Federal laws on the subject reflective of a clear national consensus. Similarly, unless those legislatures demonstrate a national consensus against capital punishment for all mentally retarded individuals, the Court seems unlikely to retreat from the view that the Eighth Amendment does not categorically preclude such punishment. This position would seem likely to prevail at least insofar as mildly or moderately retarded defendants are concerned, where the jury has had ample opportunity to consider the defendant's mental capacity as a mitigating factor and to reflect its judgment on this factor in the sentencing decision.

The importation of *Teague* retroactivity analysis into the capital punishment field may limit the collateral relief available in capital cases. If a petitioner were to seek habeas corpus relief from a death sentence based on an argument which, if successful, would result in a new rule under *Teague*—a rule not dictated by precedent that would "break new ground" and impose new obligations upon the States and the Federal Government—then if it did not fit within an exception, it could not be announced in such a case or applied retroactively to the defendant who raised the issue. The Court might not even reach the merits of the issue if a new rule, not covered by an exception, was anticipated in the case. ❖

For The Period 1980-1987:
BRAZIL AND MEXICO AVERAGED VIRTUALLY 60% OF LATIN AMERICA'S GDP (GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT)

Proportion of Regional GDP, 1980-1987



Gross Domestic Product, by Country, 1960-87 *(Percentages)*

	Proportion of Regional GDP			Real Growth Rates					
	Averages			Cumulative Averages			Annual		
Country	1960–69	1970–79	1980–87	1961–70	1971–80	1981–84	1985	1986	1987
Argentina	16.2	12.9	10.0	4.1	2.6	-1.6	4.7	5.4	1.6
Bahamas	0.4	0.3	0.3	6.8	2.0	1.1	4.1	2.6	4.4
Barbados	0.2	0.1	0.1	6.2	1.6	-1.0	1.1	5.1	2.2
Bolivia	0.7	0.7	0.6	5.0	4.5	-2.6	-0.2	-2.9	2.1
Brazil	25.8	31.9	35.7	6.1	8.7	0.1	8.4	8.0	2.9
Chile	4.8	3.4	3.0	4.2	2.5	-1.1	2.4	5.7	5.7
Colombia	5.0	4.8	5.0	5.3	5.5	2.0	3.1	5.1	5.4
Costa Rica	0.6	0.6	0.6	5.9	5.6	0.2	0.7	5.4	3.4
Dominican Republic	0.9	1.0	1.0	5.1	6.9	2.6	-2.6	3.2	8.1
Ecuador	1.2	1.4	1.5	4.9	8.9	1.6	4.4	3.2	-4.8
El Salvador	0.8	0.7	0.5	5.6	3.2	-2.8	2.0	0.6	2.8
Guatemala	1.5	1.5	1.4	5.5	5.7	-1.3	-0.6	0.1	3.1
Guyana	0.2	0.1	0.1	3.5	1.3	-4.7	1.0	0.2	0.7
Haiti	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.8	4.7	-1.3	0.3	0.6	-0.6
Honduras	0.4	0.4	0.4	5.5	5.5	0.5	3.2	2.7	4.2
Jamaica	0.9	0.7	0.5	5.4	-0.8	1.3	-4.5	2.1	4.9
Mexico	20.5	21.7	23.9	7.0	6.6	1.8	2.6	-4.0	1.4
Nicaragua	0.6	0.6	0.4	6.9	0.3	1.9	-4.1	-1.0	-1.0
Panama	0.6	0.6	0.6	7.9	5.5	2.4	4.7	3.4	2.4
Paraguay	0.5	0.5	0.6	4.7	8.8	1.9	4.0	0.0	4.3
Peru	4.4	3.8	3.4	5.3	3.8	-1.0	2.4	9.5	6.9
Suriname	0.2	0.2	0.1	7.8	1.4	0.8	-0.2	0.6	-6.6
Trinidad and Tobago	1.2	1.0	0.9	4.5	5.5	-2.7	-4.4	-3.3	-7.4
Uruguay	1.7	1.1	1.0	1.5	3.0	-3.8	0.3	6.6	4.9
Venezuela	10.8	10.1	8.6	6.1	4.1	-1.6	1.3	6.8	3.0
Latin America	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**5.6**	**5.9**	**0.2**	**3.5**	**4.0**	**2.7**

Source: Inter-American Bank, based on official statistics of member countries

Source: Inter-American Development Bank. Annual Report 1988. P 2.

PROFILE OF THE CLASS OF 1993 AT HARVARD COLLEGE/RADCLIFFE COLLEGE

The following is reprinted from (Harvard University's) Harvard Gazette, September 15, 1989. P.4.

Quite possibly, some readers are not interested in a profile of a Harvard/Radcliffe class. Others might ask for one of the University of Michigan, Cal Berkeley, or the Air Force Academy. However, the one below is the only one we've seen in such detail, and we print it believing many will find it of interest. - *Ed.*

Admissions

	Men	Women	Total
Registered	939	666	1,605
Yield*	72.9%	70.9%	71.1%

Minorities

	Registered	Yield (%)	% of Class
Asian Americans	275	80.6	17.1
Blacks	130	61.6	8.1
Mexican Americans	40	53.5	2.6
Other Hispanics	36	81.8	2.2
Puerto Ricans	23	67.6	1.4
Native Americans	9	100	.6
TOTAL	513	71.4	32.0

Geographical Breakdown (%)

New England	21.8
Mid-Atlantic	31.0
South	12.2
Middle West	9.2
Central	2.7
Mountain	3.2
West	11.8
Non-U.S.	5.9
Territories	.6

Intended Field of Concentration

	Men (%)	Women (%)
Humanities	23.2	30.8
Social Sciences	31.0	28.1
Bio. Sciences	16.8	23.0
Physical Sciences	11.3	6.6
Engineering & Computer Science	8.1	5.4
Math	6.5	5.1
None listed	1.1	0.3

1988-89 Financial Aid

Students with scholarships—41%
Total Grants awarded—$29,350,000
Total Loans—$6,840,000
66% of all students receive some financial aid in the form of scholarships, loans, and/or part-time employment

Typical package for Grant Holder 1988-89

Total Budget $21,150
Parents' contribution $5,700 (27%)
Student assets and summer $1,650 (8%)
** H/R, Federal, and outside grants $10,200 (48%)
Loan $2,400 (11%)
Jobs $1,200 (6%)

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*Yield is the percentage of students who accepted Harvard's offer of admission.

** - H/R = Harvard College/Radcliffe College

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PROJECTIONS OF EDUCATION STATISTICS TO 1997-98

Highlights

Public Elementary and Secondary Education

- Enrollment in grades K–8 will increase for the rest of the 1980s and into the 1990s, while enrollment in grades 9–12 will decline until 1990, reverse its course, and increase until 1997.

- The number of classroom teachers is projected to increase from 2.3 million in 1987 to 2.6 million in 1997.

- Current expenditures, in constant 1987 dollars, are expected to increase from $146.1 billion in 1986–87 to $201.5 billion in 1997–98, an increase of 38 percent.

Higher Education

- Enrollment in institutions of higher education is projected to increase from 12.5 million in 1987 to 12.6 million by 1990, then decline to 12.2 million by 1997.

- Between 1987 and 1997, enrollment of students under 25 years of age is projected to fall by nearly 600,000, while the enrollment of older students is expected to rise by 217,000.

- The number of associate and bachelor's degrees is expected to decline over the projection period, while master's, doctor's, and first-professional degrees are projected to rise slightly or remain stable.

- By 1997–98, women are expected to be awarded the majority of associate, bachelor's, and master's degrees and more than two-fifths of the doctor's and first-professional degrees.

- The number of instructional faculty is projected to decline from 722,000 in 1987 to 700,000 in 1997.

Overview

During the past four decades, demographic changes profoundly affected American education. At the elementary and secondary level, the baby-boom caused enrollments to increase in the 1950s and 1960s, followed by a decline in the 1970s as birth rates fell. Declines continued into the early 1980s, followed by steady increases from the mid-1980s to the late 1980s. At the higher education level, the baby-boom generation produced a rapid expansion in college enrollment from the mid-1960s through most of the 1970s. Enrollment peaked in the mid-1980s, remained stable for a few years and is increasing again in the late 1980s. During the 1990s, demographic changes will continue to affect American education.

Public Elementary and Secondary Education

Enrollment

Enrollment changes in public elementary and secondary schools reflect changes in the school-age population. Public elementary and secondary enrollment increased rapidly in the 1960s and then decreased in the 1970s and early 1980s. It rose again in the mid- to late-1980s in response to changing birth rates. In the 1990s, enrollment is expected to continue rising (figure 1).

Enrollment projections for the 1990s indicate enrollment will increase into the late 1990s. Enrollment in grades K–8 will continue to increase for the rest of the 1980s and into the 1990s. However, enrollment in grades 9–12 will continue to decline until 1990, then reverse course and increase until 1997. So, school officials will be faced with higher enrollments in the next decade. Projections indicate that enrollments are expected to approach, but not reach, the peak attained in 1971.

Classroom Teachers

In the 1970s and early 1980s, decreases in enrollment were accompanied by increases in the number of classroom teachers in public elementary and secondary schools. The number of teachers continued rising into the late 1970s due, in part, to the increased staffing needs of special and bilingual education programs. The number of teachers then declined until 1983. After 1983, the number of classroom teachers increased to an all-time high of 2.3 million in 1987. The number is expected to continue rising to the late 1980s and into the 1990s, reaching 2.6 million by 1997.

continued →

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Projections of Education Statistics To 1997-98, Washington 1988, Pp. V and 5.

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EDUCATION PROJECTIONS continued

High School Graduates

The number of public high school graduates peaked in 1976–77 at 2.84 million (figure 3). Then, the number of graduates fell to 2.38 million in 1985–86, followed by a slight rise to 2.43 million in 1986–87. An increase to 2.54 million is expected by 1988–89. After 1988–89, the number of public high school graduates is expected to decrease to 2.24 million by 1991–92 and then increase to 2.55 million by 1997–98.

Current Expenditures and Teacher Salaries

Current expenditures (in constant 1987 dollars) rose steadily over the past 15 years, rising from $118.1 billion in 1972–73 to $146.1 billion in 1986–87, an increase of 24 percent. The level of current expenditures is expected to rise to $201.5 billion by 1997–98. In contrast, teacher salaries declined from $26,051 in 1972–73 to $22,049 in 1979–80 in constant 1987 dollars, a decrease of 15 percent. Since then, teacher salaries have increased steadily, reaching $26,704 in 1986–87. By 1997–98, the average teacher salary is forecast to be $31,856, an increase of 19.3 percent from 1986–87.

Higher Education

College-Age Population and Enrollment

Unlike enrollment changes in elementary and secondary schools, changes in enrollment in institutions of higher education (4-year and 2-year colleges and universities) are not affected by population shifts alone. Higher education enrollments are affected by economic conditions, political and administrative decisions, the perceived value of a degree, the intrinsic value of higher education, and college costs. Some of these are impossible to quantify. Although in the past higher education has drawn its participants primarily from the pool of 18- to 24-year-olds, higher education no longer comprises only the younger population. Between 1972 and 1981, the number of 18- to 24-year-olds rose from 26.1 million to 30.4 million, increasing 17 percent (figure 2). The number then decreased to 27.4 million in 1987. By 1997, the population is projected to decline to 24 million, a decline of 12 percent from 1987. This decline in the traditional college-age population is expected to have an effect on enrollment levels in higher education.

Similarly, decreases in the populations of certain older age groups are expected over the projection period. Between 1972 and 1987, the number of 25- to 29-year-olds increased by 45 percent. This age group is projected to decline in number to 18.8 million by 1997, decreasing 15 percent from 1987. The 30- to 34-year-old population, which increased 73 percent between 1972 and 1987, is projected to decrease a moderate 3 percent from 1987 to 1997. In contrast, the 35- to 44-year-old population is projected to increase 27 percent between 1987 and 1997, a result of the baby-boom generation having moved into this age group.

Although the traditional and older college-age populations are projected to decline, enrollment will increase gradually until 1990. The rise will come from increasing enrollment rates of students under 25 years old, women, part-time students, and older students. After 1990, college enrollment is projected to decline when the increasing number of older students no longer offsets the declines in the enrollment of younger students.

Earned Degrees Conferred

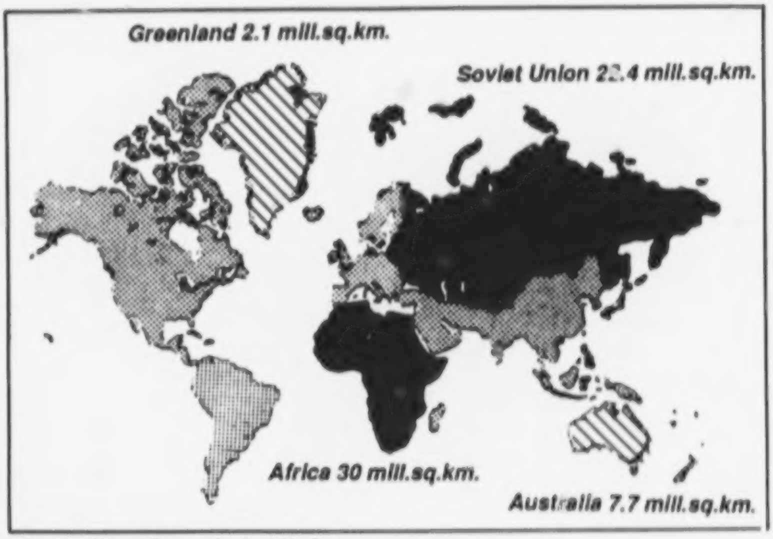
The growth in earned degrees overall is due to the substantial rise in the number of degrees awarded to women. In 1986–87, women were awarded the majority of associate, bachelor's, and master's degrees and one-third of the doctor's and first-professional degrees. By 1997–98, women are expected to receive 50 percent or more of the associate, bachelor's, and master's degrees. The proportion of doctor's degrees awarded to women is expected to approach 50 percent and more than 40 percent of all first-professional degrees will be awarded to women.

Instructional Faculty

From 1975 to 1987, public and private instructional faculty increased faster than enrollment, 15 percent versus 12 percent. Instructional faculty is projected to increase slightly from 722,000 in 1987 to 726,000 in 1990, before decreasing to 700,000 by 1997. ◆

Source: U.S. Department of Education. National Center for Education Statistics. Projections of Education Statistics To 1997-98. Washington 1988. Pp. 5 and 9.

THE MERCATOR PROJECTION: EXAMPLES OF DISTORTIONS INHERENT TO IT


Greenland 2.1 mill.sq.km.
Soviet Union 22.4 mill.sq.km.
Africa 30 mill.sq.km.
Australia 7.7 mill.sq.km.

Source: World Paper, April 1979. P.16.
Reprinted with permission.

Mercator Projection

Named after Gerhard Kremer Mercator, Flemish geographer, 1512-1594.

A map projection in which the meridians are drawn parallel to each other and the parallels of latitude are straight lines whose distance from each other increases with their distance from the equator so that at all places the degrees of latitude and longitude have to each other the same ratio as on the sphere itself with resultant apparent enlargement of the polar regions but with great value in navigation since a rhumb line on a Mercator map is always a straight line.

Webster's Third New International Dictionary ©1981.

Alternatives to the Mercator projection include equal area projections. Two of those currently favored are (1) the Albers Equal Area Projection used by the World Bank which it advises maintains correct areas for all countries, albeit at the cost of some distortions in shape, distance, and direction, and (2) The (Professor Arno) Peters Projection which, he claims, shows "the proportions of the land surface area more accurately" than does the Mercator Projection.

River Basins of the United States: THE POTOMAC

U.S.Department of the Interior/Geological Survey.
One of a series.

The Potomac is the fifth in this series reprinted by World Eagle. River Basins treated earlier:
The Columbia, February 1989, pp.20-22
The Hudson, April 1989, pp.14-16
The Suwannee, June 1989, pp.26-28
The Colorado, October 1989, pp.20-22

Early Exploration and Settlement

The Potomac was discovered in 1608 by Captain John Smith who called the river "Patawomeke" after an Algonquian Indian family place name for the area that is now Washington, D.C. The basin area was first inhabited by three Indian tribes of the Algonquian family group—Pamunkey and Powhatan in what is now Virginia and Nanticoke in what is now Maryland. The first settlement of Europeans was established in 1634 in the Colony of Maryland by the second Lord Baltimore, Cecil Calvert.

Headwaters

The North Branch of the Potomac River (mainstream headwater) rises in the western Allegheny Mountains near Fairfax Stone, a monument at the Maryland-West Virginia boundary.

Mouth

The Potomac enters Chesapeake Bay between Point Lookout, Md., and Smith Point, Va. The approximate latitude at the mouth is 38°00′ N. and the approximate longitude is 76°15′ W.

Major Tributaries

The South Branch of the Potomac River, the Savage, Shenandoah, Monocacy, and Cacapon Rivers; and Antietam and Conococheague Creeks are major tributaries of the Potomac.

Course

The North and South Branches flow northeast and unite about 15 miles southeast of Cumberland, Md. The river then flows east-southeast, with frequent meanders, forming the Maryland-West Virginia and Maryland-Virginia boundaries. Passing Harpers Ferry, W. Va., it flows through a relatively steep-sided valley, interrupted by intermittent rapids and riffles. Ten miles north of Washington, the river has cut a 200-foot gorge in which it descends some 90 feet in a 3-mile series of rapids known as the Great Falls of the Potomac. Below Great Falls and past Washington to Mount Vernon, the river flows at moderate depths along gently sloping banks. At Washington, still 116 miles from its mouth, it meets the tide and becomes an estuary. The Potomac enters the Chesapeake Bay about 73 miles from the Atlantic Ocean.

Length

The Potomac River is approximately 400 miles long from its headwaters at North Branch to its mouth in the Chesapeake Bay. It ranks 48th among 135 U.S. rivers that are more than 100 miles long.

Width

The river is about 11 miles wide between Point Lookout and Smith Point. Upstream, from Great Falls to Harpers Ferry, it averages about 1,300 feet in width.

Depth

The deepest point near Morgantown, Md., in the tidal portion of the river below Washington, D.C., is 107 feet. A navigable channel depth of 24 feet is maintained for 108 miles in the tidal portion of the river, downstream from Washington, D.C.

Rate of Flow

Near the headwaters at Cumberland, Md., the river's rate of flow is 559,000 gallons per minute (gpm); about midpoint at Point of Rocks, Md., it is 4.2 million gpm; and the rate of flow at the start of the estuary near Washington, D.C., is 5.1 million gpm.

Highest and Lowest Flows

The highest recorded flow, about 216 million gpm, occurred at Washington, D.C., in March 1936; the lowest flow, 270,000 gpm, occurred at Washington in September 1966.

Dams, Reservoirs, and Canals

The Savage River Dam and Reservoir is near Bloomington, Md., and the Stony River Dam and Reservoir is near Mount Storm,

continued →

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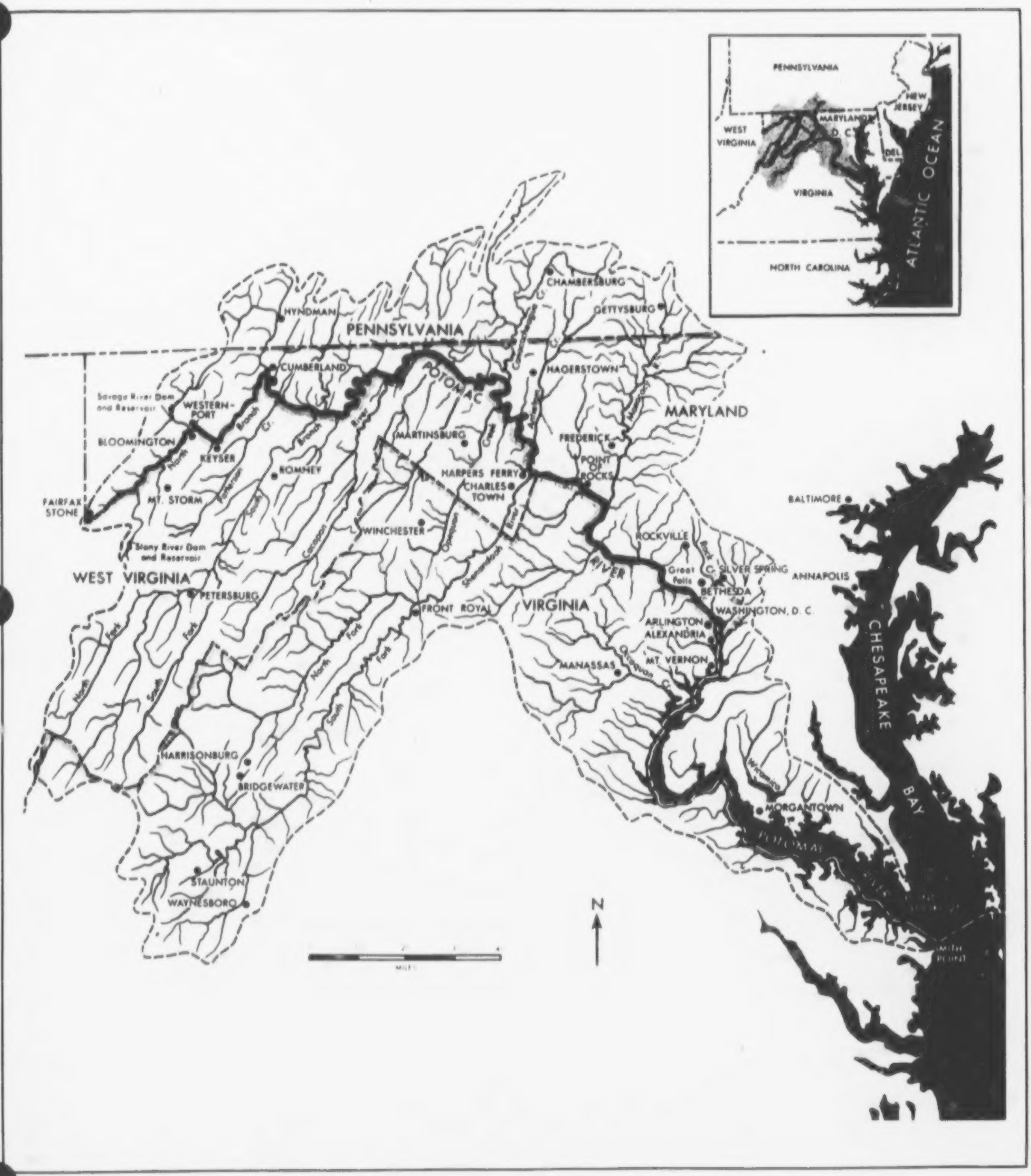
THE POTOMAC RIVER BASIN continued


PENNSYLVANIA
NEW JERSEY
WEST VIRGINIA
MARYLAND
D.C.
DEL
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
CHAMBERSBURG
GETTYSBURG
HYNDMAN
PENNSYLVANIA
CUMBERLAND
POTOMAC
HAGERSTOWN
MARYLAND
Savage River Dam and Reservoir
WESTERNPORT
BLOOMINGTON
KEYSER
North Branch
South Branch
Patterson Cr.
ROMNEY
MARTINSBURG
FREDERICK
POINT OF ROCKS
HARPERS FERRY
CHARLES TOWN
MT. STORM
FAIRFAX STONE
BALTIMORE
WINCHESTER
Cacapon
Opequon
Shenandoah
ROCKVILLE
Stony River Dam and Reservoir
Rock Cr.
SILVER SPRING
ANNAPOLIS
WEST VIRGINIA
RIVER
Great Falls
BETHESDA
PETERSBURG
WASHINGTON, D. C.
FRONT ROYAL
VIRGINIA
ARLINGTON
ALEXANDRIA
MANASSAS
Occoquan Cr.
MT. VERNON
North Fork
South Fork
CHESAPEAKE
BAY
HARRISONBURG
BRIDGEWATER
MORGANTOWN
POTOMAC
STAUNTON
WAYNESBORO
N
MILES
SMITH POINT

continued

THE POTOMAC RIVER BASIN continued

W. Va. The Chesapeake and Ohio Canal parallels the river from Cumberland, Md., to Washington, D.C. The canal formerly was used for shipping, but with its towpath, it is now a recreational area.

Geologic Setting

The Potomac River Basin lies in five physiographic provinces: Coastal Plain, Piedmont Plateau, Blue Ridge, Valley and Ridge, and Appalachian Plateau. The Valley and Ridge province includes the Shenandoah Valley. The land is hilly to mountainous with frequent rock outcroppings in the upper area. From Harpers Ferry to the area above Washington, D.C., the land is open plain with scattered forest cover. West of the Blue Ridge province, rocks are folded sedimentary types including limestone, dolomite, sandstone, and shale. From the Blue Ridge province to Washington, rocks are metamorphic (mainly crystalline) and igneous types. From Washington to the mouth of the river, sedimentary rocks and alluvium predominate.

Drainage Area

The basin area is 14,670 square miles and includes the District of Columbia and parts of Maryland, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and West Virginia.

Average Rainfall

An average of from 35 to 45 inches of rain falls annually in most of the basin, and more than 60 inches of rain fall at the higher elevations of the basin.

Quality

From its headwaters to Washington, the water in the river is fresh; however, in the estuary below Washington, the water becomes brackish. The river delivers 2½ million tons of sediment to the estuary in an average year. The water of the Potomac is usually hard (contains 121 to 180 parts per million of undissolved solids per liter) and requires treatment. It is of good quality except for localized pollution from industrial wastes (including acid mine drainage), municipal wastes, and sediment. Ground water, where available, can be used without treatment.

Major Cities

Chambersburg, Waynesboro, and Gettysburg, Pa.; Silver Spring, Bethesda, Rockville, Hagerstown, and Frederick, Md.; Arlington, Alexandria, and Staunton, Va.; Martinsburg, Keyser, and Romney, W. Va.; and Washington, D.C., are major cities of the Potomac River Basin.

Municipal and Industrial Water Use

About 2½ million people use approximately 450 million gallons of river water each day. About ½ million people on farms, in small towns, and in suburbs use about 100 million gallons of ground water each day.

Commercial Water Use

Shipping from Washington to the Chesapeake Bay; fishing in the estuary; recreation and resort areas above Washington; and limited hydroelectric power generation are some of the ways in which water from the basin is used commercially.

Agriculture

Agricultural products which come from the basin are: fruit, grain, tobacco, forage crops, and dairy products.

Industry

Industry in the basin includes: wood pulp and textile mills, electronic and chemical industries, and a variety of light industries.

Minerals

Minerals found in the basin are: limestone, sand and gravel, glass sand, coal, shale, lead, zinc, soapstone, marble, pyrite, and manganese; and brick, fire, and ceramic clays.

Water Data

The Hydrologic Data Network, maintained by the U.S. Geological Survey in cooperation with the individual States, is the chief source of basic data on water in this country. In cooperation with other agencies, the U.S. Geological Survey maintains 16,500 gaging stations that measure high and low flow of rivers, lakes, and streams; 27,500 observation wells that collect data on levels and pumpage of ground water; and 8,200 stations that measure water quality. ❖

THE "GREENING" OF WORLD POLITICS

By Ellen B. Laipson. Reprinted from CRS Review (Congressional Research Service, The Library of Congress), August 1989, pages 22&23.

Environmental issues have recently been given high priority in international discussions. Pushed by citizen concern over the threat of global environmental changes, politicians and legislators find they must seek international cooperation for solutions.

The growing seriousness of environmental problems in various parts of the world has led to the emergence of the environment as a global political issue. Environmental issues are now regularly addressed at multilateral forums, in regional summits, and in specific bilateral dialogues, such as U.S.-Canada talks over acid rain. In some cases, these discussions are among environmental experts, who have long recognized the need for international cooperation, because environmental phenomena such as desertification, climate change, and maritime pollution do not recognize national boundaries. But political and diplomatic leaders are also learning to cope with a new and increasingly important priority—the environmental agenda.

To understand this "greening" of world politics, one has to look both at the issue as it is defined between and among governments, and as it has evolved within specific societies. Governments address environmental problems often because of pressures from grass-roots efforts at the local level, and often from people who may not be politically active on other issues. Environmentally active citizens often view government as being part of both the problem and the solution.

Multilateral Efforts

The United Nations recognized the need to address environmental problems over 20 years ago when the U.N. approved a resolution identifying the urgent need to limit further damage to the environment. The U.N. Conference on the Human Environment, held in Stockholm in 1972, led to the formation of the U.N. Environment Programme (UNEP). UNEP has promoted international cooperation and has faciliated important exchanges of scientific information. In 1987 the entire U.N. community adopted a major UNEP document to guide governments at local, regional, and international levels to achieve environmentally sound development. At UNEP's most recent meeting in Nairobi in May 1989, delegates called for a more radical and ambitious agenda.

The Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE), often identified as a forum for East-West dialogue on human rights, also considers the environment part of its mandate, included in what is called Basket II. For the United States, CSCE work on the environment, focusing on nuclear safety and Mediterranean pollution, has been a way to avoid more sensitive questions of security and demilitarization of the Mediterranean area, which is sought by some CSCE members. In the future the United States may have to address more seriously CSCE deliberations over the environment.

The Non-Aligned Movement has an environmental agenda that touches on some of the fierce internal debates within the Third World over linkages between development, debt, and environment. Many in the developing world point out that economic growth in the developed world was often at the expense of the environment and that they, the LDCs, should not be held to a higher standard than the advanced countries were when they were exploiting lands and rivers to promote growth. They also hope that donors' well-meaning efforts to fine-tune development projects so they are environmentally safe do not result in one more kind of conditionality on aid to already beleaguered poor countries. These sentiments were expressed recently when Norway's Prime Minister Gro Harlem Brundtland won the 1988 Third World Prize for putting the environment on the world agenda. She called for a more careful understanding of the links between poverty and many environmental problems, such as pollution.

Ellen B. Laipson is a specialist in Middle Eastern and North African affairs with the CRS Foreign Affairs and National Defense Division.

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Bilateral Issues

Robert Frost's adage, "Good fences make good neighbors" has become somewhat anachronistic in an age of increased awareness of the permeability of boundaries. Nations have begun examining their neighbors' industrial, waste, pollution, energy, and development policies because adjacent environments can be affected profoundly. There are many cases of formerly cordial bilateral relations going sour over environmental issues—the Chernobyl crisis of 1986 affected crops and food supply in over a dozen adjacent countries; acid rain has altered the mood of U.S.-Canadian ties.

In early 1989 Secretary of State Baker and his Soviet counterpart agreed to formalize superpower cooperation in three areas: drugs, terrorism, and environment. While it is too early to know what form this cooperation will take, it is yet another sign of the environment making its way into mainstream politics around the world.

Green Parties

Green parties and movements have usually begun with citizens organizing to discuss immediate environmental threats to their well-being, which in their view governments have failed to address or made worse. Many of the green parties around the world appear to have begun as counterculture, radical, fringe political groups, often combining forces with antinuclear activists.

The proclivity of countries to have green parties may be more related to the propensity of their political systems to accommodate small, polarized political groupings, than to the severity of their environmental problems. This would explain, in part, the absence of a green party in the United States, for example. However, in many countries without formal green parties, nongovernmental environmental organizations have proliferated, and have been very effective politically.

The most famous green party is in the Federal Republic of Germany, where it is essentially a "rainbow" party, an alliance that includes feminists, pacifists, antinuclear activists, and others. The early stances of the party were stridently anarchist, anticapitalist, strongly antinuclear, and even against the existence of the German state. Over time, as the party matured politically, its message has appealed to a broader cross-section of German society. Today the German Greens lead the environmental group in the European parliament, are represented in German federal and state government, and are part of ruling coalitions in the West Berlin and Hamburg municipal governments. Some Greens have formed alliances with the Social Democratic Party (SPD), and such "red/green" coalitions may be seen both as a sign of green party maturity and its potential obsolescence.

It is not sufficient to measure the strength of green sentiment by looking at the size and electoral success of green parties. Increasingly, green issues have been embraced by establishment parties in Europe. Both Conservative British Prime Minister Thatcher and Socialist French President Mitterrand have recently embraced green party positions. This has led green partisans to accuse others of exploiting their issue for its electoral appeal, and these activists remain skeptical that incumbent governments would sacrifice economic growth or maintenance of jobs for the sake of the environment.

Thus, despite the growing popularity of the environment as a political issue, it must compete with other concerns and priorities. Environmental goals sometimes seem irreconcilable with other political realities, such as potential loss of jobs in polluting industries. Green party members sometimes appear unwilling to face these difficult economic and political trade-offs, leading to image problems.

In the less developed and less democratic countries, green politics remain in large measure at the pre-party stage of development. Environmental activists mobilize at the local level, often gathering together people who are not politically active or may not share common political views. Of note are the Egyptian greens who, although not legalized as a party, are trying to save Cairo and the pyramids; the Indonesians who have 600 groups working on environmental protection; the Colombian "green councils"; and the Kenyan Greenbelt movement that has mobilized farmers and students to plant over two million trees. In some cases, such as Eastern Europe and the Soviet republics of Lithuania, Armenia, and Ukraine in particular, it seems that activism on environmental issues has become a stepping stone to greater political consciousness and a greater desire for participation. Thus green parties, in their formal and informal ways, may be advancing broader political goals as they work for the environment. ❖

U.S. HAS A SURPLUS BALANCE OF TRADE IN ADVANCED TECHNOLOGY PRODUCTS, A DEFICIT FOR ALL OTHER MERCHANDISE TRADE

"Advanced technology" products are manufactured or processed goods that contain leading edge technologies. A nation's trade in advanced technology is a popular measure of economic competitiveness. U.S. technology trade shows a stable and positive balance.

Trade Value Is High

Advanced technology exports and imports are big business for the United States. In 1988, the value of U.S. advanced technology trade was over $125 billion, more than our trade in food and fuel.

- Advanced technology exports totaled $77 billion, about one-fourth of all U.S. exports.
- Imports of technology products approached $50 billion, about $1 of every $9 in imports.

Exports Exceed Imports

Surpluses in advanced technology trade since 1982 contrast sharply with record deficits in all other U.S. merchandise trade. Advance technology exports exceeded imports in each of the past 7 years. Technology trade surpluses were over $20 billion in 6 of those years, dropping below $17 billion in 1986 and rising to $28 billion in 1988.

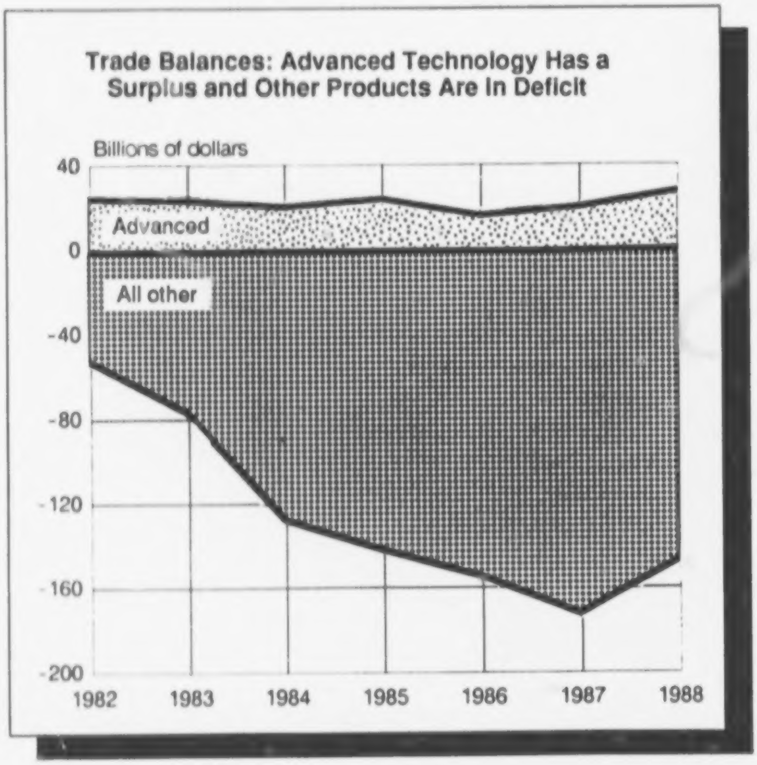
In contrast, deficits in all other merchandise trade have been historically large in recent years. In 1982, the value of U.S. non-advanced technology imports exceeded exports by $52 billion. This deficit expanded to a world record $172 billion in 1987, and receded to $147 billion last year.

Trade Share Is Growing

Advanced technology products are a growing share of U.S. trade. Since 1982, trade in advanced technology has outpaced trade in all other products, increasing from 12 to 16 percent of the value of all U.S. merchandise trade. Both exports and imports increased in value annually but the patterns of growth differed.

- The share of advanced technology exports grew from 18 to 24 percent of all U.S. exports, with most share growth coming before 1985.
- Advanced technology imports increased from 6 to 11 percent of all imports, with most of this share gain after 1985.

Growth in advanced technology's trade share took place during a period of marked increase in all U.S. merchandise trade. Between 1982 and 1988, the annual value of U.S. exports rose 49 percent and U.S. imports increased 81 percent...



Trade Balances: Advanced Technology Has a Surplus and Other Products Are In Deficit

Source: Bureau of the Census. Statistical Brief: Trade in Advanced Technology Products. SB-2-89, August 1989.

ASPECTS OF U.S. TRADE

U.S. Trade With Leading Partners in 1988

European Community

- The U.S. trade deficit with the 12 countries of the European Community declined by more than half in 1988. The $21 billion deficit recorded in 1987 fell to $9 billion in 1988 as exports grew much more rapidly than imports.
- U.S. exports to the EC-12 rose 25 percent to $76 billion in 1988, largely due to more manufactures exports.
  - — Gains were made in exports of aircraft, office and ADP equipment and parts, and electronic components.
  - — Shipments to all of the EC countries rose, with especially large increases in sales to the United Kingdom, West Germany, France, and the Netherlands.
- U.S. imports from the EC grew 5 percent to $85 billion in 1988.
  - — Imports of chemicals, aircraft, certain types of specialized machinery, and refined petroleum grew in 1988, but arrivals of passenger cars and crude petroleum fell.
  - — Purchases from all of the EC countries except Denmark and West Germany grew.
- During 1980–88 the U.S. trade balance with the EC shifted from a surplus of $21 billion to a deficit of $23 billion in 1986 and then to a deficit of $9 billion in 1988. Exports grew 29 percent—imports rose 122 percent.

Canada

- The U.S. trade deficit with Canada improved again in 1988 as U.S. exports rose more than imports. The deficit declined by $1.5 billion from the 1987 level to $10 billion in 1988.
- U.S. exports to Canada rose 20 percent in 1988 to $72 billion, largely on the strength of manufactured goods sales.
  - — The largest manufactures export gains were in automotive products, aircraft, and electronic equipment.
  - — Agricultural shipments, which rose 9 percent, were largely composed of fruits and vegetables, meat, and grain.
- U.S. imports from Canada recorded the largest increase since 1984—up 15 percent in 1988 to $81 billion.
  - — Nearly all of the increase was due to greater arrivals of passenger cars and other automotive products. Newsprint and refined petroleum imports also increased. In contrast, crude petroleum entries declined.
- The U.S. trade deficit with Canada increased from $1 billion in 1980 to $16 billion in 1985, and then fell to $10 billion in 1988. U.S. exports grew 78 percent during the period while imports doubled.

Japan

- The U.S. trade deficit with Japan improved in 1988 for the first year in nearly a decade. The 1988 deficit was $52 billion, down from $56 billion in 1987.
- U.S. exports to Japan grew 34 percent in 1988 to $38 billion, following several years of virtually flat sales.
  - — The increase was broadly based, with exports of agricultural products, manufactured goods, and crude materials all growing by about the same rate as total exports.
  - — The largest gains were in corn, computer equipment, meat, fish, aluminum, cigarettes, coal, and chemicals.
- In 1988, U.S. purchases from Japan rose by 6 percent, double the pace in 1987, to total $90 billion.
  - — Imports of manufactured goods, which comprise 99 percent of total imports from Japan, rose despite declines in arrivals of passenger cars, special purpose vehicles, and consumer electronics. The largest increases occurred in automotive parts, electronic components, ADP equipment and other types of machinery, and sporting goods.
- During 1980-88, the U.S. trade deficit with Japan increased from $10 billion in 1980 to $56 billion in 1987, but then declined to $52 billion in 1988.

Mexico

- The U.S. trade deficit with Mexico shrank to $3 billion from $6 billion in 1987.
- U.S. exports to Mexico rose 42 percent to $21 billion due to sales of manufactures and agricultural products.
  - — Shipments of automotive parts, chemicals, electronic components and other electrical equipment expanded.
  - — Greater shipments of meat, live animals, and corn boosted agricultural exports.
- Imports from Mexico grew 15 percent in 1988 to total $23 billion.
  - — All of the import increase was in manufactured goods.
  - — Imports of crude oil fell sharply, more than offsetting an increase in refined petroleum.
- During 1980–88, the U.S. trade balance with Mexico shifted from a surplus of $3 billion to a deficit of $8 billion by 1983, then gradually declined to a deficit of $3 billion by 1988. Exports expanded 36 percent during this period, while imports grew 85 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Business America, September 11, 1989, P.6.

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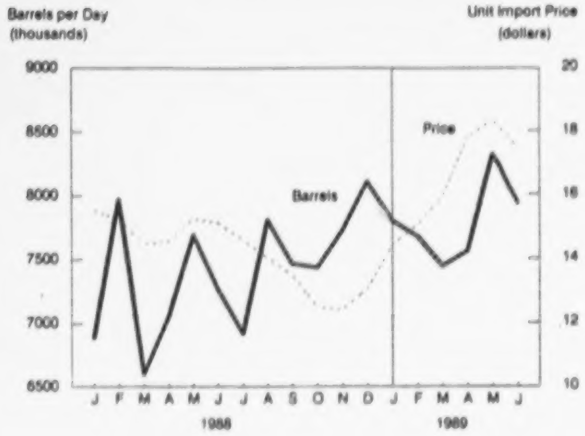
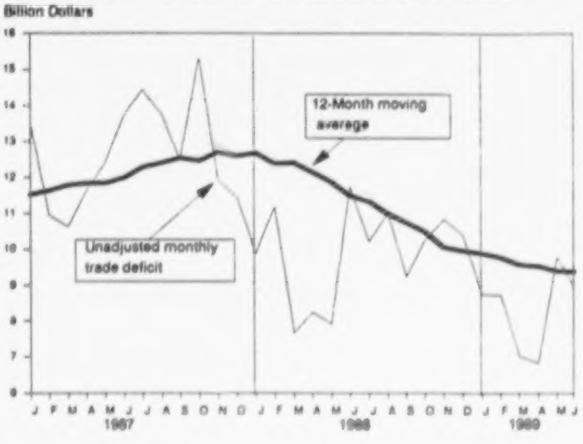
ASPECTS OF U.S. TRADE continued

Higher Oil Import Volume and Prices



The U.S. Trade Deficit is on a Downward Trend



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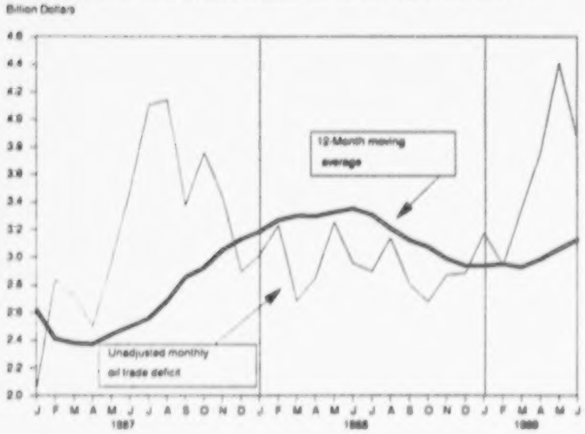
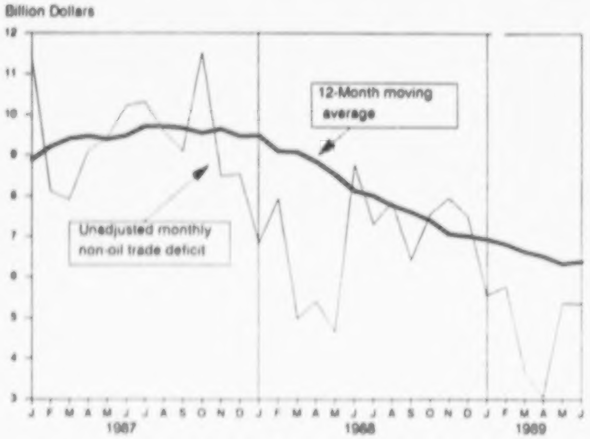
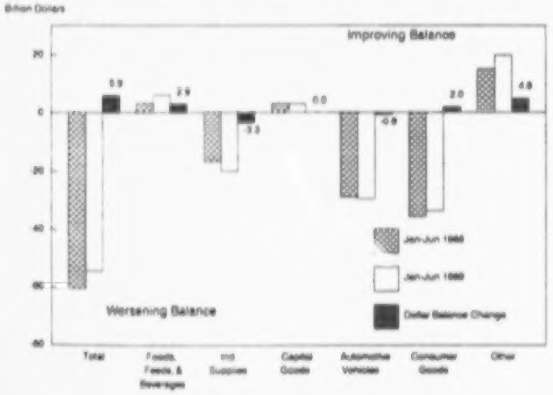


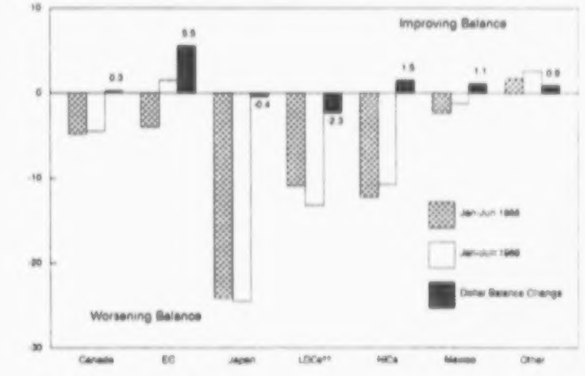
The U.S. Non-Oil Trade Deficit is on a Downward Trend



Major End-Use Commodity Trade Balances Generally are Improving



Bilateral/Regional U.S. Trade Balances Generally Are Improving*



*Data are seasonally unadjusted.
**Excludes East Asian Newly Industrialized Countries (NICs).

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Business America, September 11, 1989. P.5.

THE U.S. DEPARTMENT OF STATE DISCUSSES U.S.-CANADA RELATIONS

The following text is reprinted in full from the Department of State's GIST (June 1989) which the Department describes as "A quick reference aid on U.S. foreign relations, not a comprehensive policy statement."

Background: The US relationship with Canada is productive, complex, and intense--more so than with any other country. We each play a distinct but compatible role in world affairs, and our security interests are inextricable. We are each other's most important economic partner. With two countries as interdependent as ours, occasional differences naturally arise, but both Prime Minister Mulroney and President Bush have placed a high priority on maintaining the good relations that now exist.

Summits and other bilateral meetings: In February 1989, President Bush made his first foreign trip as president to Ottawa to meet with Prime Minister Mulroney. At the same time, Secretary Baker met with Canadian Secretary of State for External Affairs Joe Clark. The President also met on May 4, 1989, with Prime Minister Mulroney when he was on a private visit to Washington. Secretary Baker and other Cabinet officers meet frequently with their Canadian counterparts to discuss issues of bilateral, regional, and global concern.

Global interests: Canada and the US are founding members of the UN and NATO. Both are active in international affairs and consult extensively on development assistance, arms control efforts, counterterrorism concerns, and peacekeeping issues.

Security relations: In addition to being NATO allies, the US and Canada maintain the joint North American Aerospace Defense (NORAD) Command. A unique arrangement to develop and procure defense goods also exists. Our security relationship is coordinated by the Permanent Joint Board on Defense, established in 1940.

Economic and trade relations: Canada is our largest trading partner. US merchandise exports to Canada amount to more than twice our exports to Japan, our next largest customer. The value of US-Canadian merchandise trade has quadrupled from $39 billion in 1974 to more than $154 billion in 1988. The US provides some 69% of Canada's imports and takes 74% of its exports. The 1965 bilateral Automotive Agreement provides duty-free treatment for most automotive products, which constituted about one-third ($51.5 billion) of 1988's total US-Canadian trade. Other major Canadian exports include energy and forest products. Principal US exports to Canada are manufactured goods, such as electronics, plastics, and steel.

Canada also is our largest investment partner. In 1988, US direct investment in Canada totaled about $66 billion, 20% of all US direct investment abroad. Canada's direct investment in the US in the same year was valued at more than $35 billion.

The US-Canada trading relationship has been further enhanced by the bilateral Free Trade Agreement (FTA) that went into effect on January 1, 1989. Over a 10-year period, the FTA will remove all tariffs and virtually all import and export restrictions; resolve many longstanding bilateral irritants; and liberalize rules in several areas including agriculture, services, energy, financial services, investment, and government procurement.

Energy: Canada is by far our largest supplier of imported energy -- oil, uranium, natural gas, and electricity -- and this relationship will be made secure under the FTA. During 1988 Canada also was the largest market for US coal exports. The total value of two-way energy trade has grown to about $11 billion a year.

Environment: Environmental cooperation dates from the Boundary Waters Treaty of 1909 that set up the US-Canada International Joint Commission. Composed of three US and three Canadian members, the commission has played a unique role in resolving boundary water and environment questions affecting the two countries. It has contributed to one of our more recent environmental success stories, the joint cleanup of the Great Lakes following a US-Canada agreement in 1972. In 1987, the US and Canada expanded the agreement to address additional issues such as airborne toxic substances.

An important bilateral issue is acid rain, a form of transboundary air pollution that Canadians fear threatens their forests and freshwater

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U.S.-CANADA RELATIONS continued

streams. They have proposed that both countries act to reduce the emissions believed responsible. Canada has started a program to reduce its sulfur dioxide emissions 50% by 1994. The US has reduced emissions under current laws, while devoting large sums to intensive research and pilot clean-coal-demonstration projects, as part of a multi-year, $5-billion joint Federal-private industry program. Part of a 1986 joint report by US and Canadian special envoys, that program and other recommendations for research and consultations are now being implemented by both governments. On June 12, President Bush announced a new clean air legislative proposal to reduce sulphur dioxide emissions by 5 million tons by 1995 and by a total of 10 million tons by the year 2000 -- a 50% reduction. Nitrogen oxide, a second leading cause of acid rain, will be reduced by 2 million tons by 2000. Assuming a favorable congressional response, this proposal should provide the basis for discussion of an accord to resolve this issue.

The US and Canada have cooperated closely in addressing global climate change issues, including climate warming and protection of the ozone layer. The two countries also share a common interest in ensuring that oil and gas development in the Beaufort Sea region does not have an adverse impact on the environment.

Maritime boundary disputes: With the [signing] of the Arctic Cooperation Agreement in January 1988, the US and Canada arrived at a practical solution to their dispute concerning the waters off the Canadian Arctic Islands. Canada claims these waters are internal, a claim the US does not recognize. The agreement permits the US and Canada to increase their cooperation in the Arctic without prejudicing the legal position of either country. Four disputes remain at issue between the US and Canada. These involve waters in the Dixon Entrance off the Alaska panhandle, waters in the Beaufort Sea off the north coast of Alaska, waters in the Strait of Juan de Fuca off Washington State, and conflicting sovereignty claims to Machias Seal Island and North Rock in the Gulf of Maine. ◆

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Monthly abbreviations are: S, O, N, D, Ja, F, Mr, Ap, My, Je. A reference of S5 means September issue, page 5. PROFILES pages are indexed, and so, also are the individual items in them. A PROFILES (P) item on drug use in the November issue, page 18 would be indexed DRUGS: Use (P), N18, OPINION pages (O) are indexed and so are the items in them.

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U.S. AND WORLD OVERVIEWS

U.S. Overview

- Total U.S. energy production in 1988 was 66 quadrillion Btu, an increase of 1 percent from the 1987 level.
- U.S. consumption of all forms of energy combined rose to nearly 80 quadrillion Btu in 1988, a 4-percent increase from the previous year's consumption.
- U.S. net energy imports increased by 5 percent, totaling 13 quadrillion Btu in 1988.
- Petroleum net imports rose 7 percent, natural gas net imports rose 30 percent, while coal net exports increased by 19 percent from 1987 levels.
- The decline in oil prices contributed to a decrease in the 1988 U.S. energy trade deficit, which fell to $32.9 billion, a $3.6-billion decrease from the 1987 deficit.

World Overview

- World primary energy production attained a new high in 1987, exceeding 321 quadrillion Btu, an increase of more than 7 quadrillion Btu over 1986 production levels.
- The largest producers of crude oil and natural gas liquids in 1987 were the U.S.S.R., the United States, and Saudi Arabia.
- Two-thirds of all the dry natural gas produced in the world in 1987 came from the U.S.S.R. and the United States.
- China was the world's leading coal producer in 1987, with production reported at 1,014 million short tons, followed by the United States, with 919 million short tons.
- The major producers of nuclear electric power in 1987 were the United States (455.3 billion kilowatthours), France (252.2), Japan (176.9), U.S.S.R. (160.0), and West Germany (124.0).
- The major producers of hydroelectric power in 1987 were Canada (313.2 billion kilowatthours), the United States (252.9), U.S.S.R. (215.0), Brazil (185.0), and Norway (102.8).

Source: U.S. Department of Energy. Energy Facts 1988. Pp. 1 & 47.

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U.S. ENERGY OVERVIEW, SELECTED YEARS, 1960-1988

(Quadrillion Btu)

Activity and Energy Source	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988[1]
Production													
Crude Oil and Lease Condensate	14.93	16.52	20.40	17.73	18.25	18.15	18.31	18.39	18.85	18.99	18.38	17.67	17.26
Natural Gas Plant Liquids	1.46	1.88	2.51	2.37	2.25	2.31	2.19	2.18	2.27	2.24	2.15	2.22	2.26
Natural Gas[2]	12.66	15.78	21.67	19.64	19.91	19.70	18.25	16.53	17.93	16.91	16.47	17.05	17.19
Coal	10.82	13.06	14.61	14.99	18.60	18.38	18.64	17.25	19.72	19.33	19.51	20.14	20.94
Nuclear Electric Power	0.01	0.04	0.24	1.90	2.74	3.01	3.13	3.20	3.55	4.15	4.47	4.91	5.68
Hydroelectric Power	1.61	2.06	2.63	3.15	2.90	2.76	3.27	3.53	3.35	2.94	3.02	2.59	2.32
Other[3]	(4)	0.01	0.02	0.07	0.11	0.13	0.11	0.13	0.17	0.21	0.23	0.24	0.24
Total Production	41.49	49.34	62.07	59.86	64.76	64.42	63.90	61.21	65.85	64.77	64.23	64.82	65.88
Imports													
Crude Oil[5]	2.20	2.65	2.81	8.72	11.19	9.34	7.42	7.08	7.30	6.81	9.00	10.07	10.83
Petroleum Products[6]	1.80	2.75	4.66	4.23	3.46	3.30	3.36	3.57	4.13	3.80	4.20	4.10	4.36
Natural Gas	0.16	0.47	0.85	0.98	1.01	0.92	0.95	0.94	0.85	0.95	0.75	0.99	1.28
Other[7]	0.07	0.04	0.07	0.19	0.31	0.42	0.36	0.44	0.48	0.54	0.48	0.60	0.48
Total Imports	4.23	5.92	8.39	14.11	15.97	13.97	12.09	12.03	12.76	12.10	14.43	15.76	16.95
Exports													
Coal	1.02	1.38	1.94	1.76	2.42	2.94	2.79	2.04	2.15	2.44	2.25	2.09	2.50
Crude Oil and Petroleum Products	0.43	0.39	0.55	0.44	1.16	1.26	1.73	1.57	1.54	1.66	1.67	1.63	1.75
Other[8]	0.03	0.09	0.18	0.16	0.14	0.12	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.14	0.14	0.13	0.15
Total Exports	1.48	1.85	2.66	2.36	3.72	4.33	4.63	3.72	3.80	4.23	4.05	3.85	4.40
Adjustments[9]	-0.43	-0.72	-1.37	-1.07	-1.05	-0.08	-0.51	1.00	-0.70	1.31	-0.36	0.04	1.51
Consumption													
Petroleum Products[10]	19.92	23.25	29.52	32.73	34.20	31.93	30.23	30.05	31.05	30.92	32.20	32.87	33.96
Natural Gas	12.39	15.77	21.79	19.95	20.39	19.93	18.51	17.36	18.51	17.83	16.71	17.67	18.60
Coal	9.84	11.58	12.26	12.66	15.42	15.91	15.32	15.89	17.07	17.48	17.26	18.01	18.81
Nuclear Power	0.01	0.04	0.24	1.90	2.74	3.01	3.13	3.20	3.55	4.15	4.47	4.91	5.68
Hydroelectric Power[11]	1.66	2.06	2.65	3.22	3.12	3.11	3.57	3.90	3.76	3.36	3.39	3.07	2.62
Other[12]	(4)	-0.01	-0.04	0.09	0.08	0.11	0.09	0.12	0.16	0.20	0.21	0.25	0.28
Total Consumption	43.80	52.68	66.43	70.55	75.96	73.99	70.85	70.52	74.10	73.95	74.24	76.77	79.94

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Dry natural gas.
[3] Includes electricity produced from geothermal, wood, waste, wind, photovoltaic, and solar thermal sources connected to electric utility distribution systems (see Note).
[4] Less than 0.005 quadrillion Btu.
[5] Includes imports of crude oil for the Strategic Petroleum Reserve, which began in 1977.
[6] Includes imports of unfinished oils and natural gas plant liquids.
[7] Includes coal, coal coke, and hydroelectric power.
[8] Includes natural gas, coal coke, and hydroelectric power.
[9] A balancing item. Includes stock changes, losses, gains, miscellaneous blending components, and unaccounted for supply.
[10] Petroleum products supplied includes natural gas plant liquids and crude oil burned as fuel.
[11] Includes industrial generation of hydroelectric power and net electricity imports.
[12] Includes electricity produced from geothermal, wood, waste, wind, photovoltaic, and solar thermal sources connected to electric utility distribution systems (see Note) and net imports of coal coke.

Note: Data do not include the consumption of wood energy (other than that consumed by the electric utility industry) which amounted to an estimated 2.6 quadrillion Btu in 1984 (see Table 97). This table also does not include small quantities of other energy forms for which consistent historical data are not available, such as geothermal, waste, wind, photovoltaic, or solar thermal energy sources except that consumed by electric utilities.

Note: Sum of components may not equal total due to independent rounding.

Sources: Tables 48, 68, 76, 82, 84, and 86, EIA estimates for industrial hydroelectric power, and conversion factors in Appendix A.

Source: U.S. Department of Energy. Annual Energy Review 1988. P.7.

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continued

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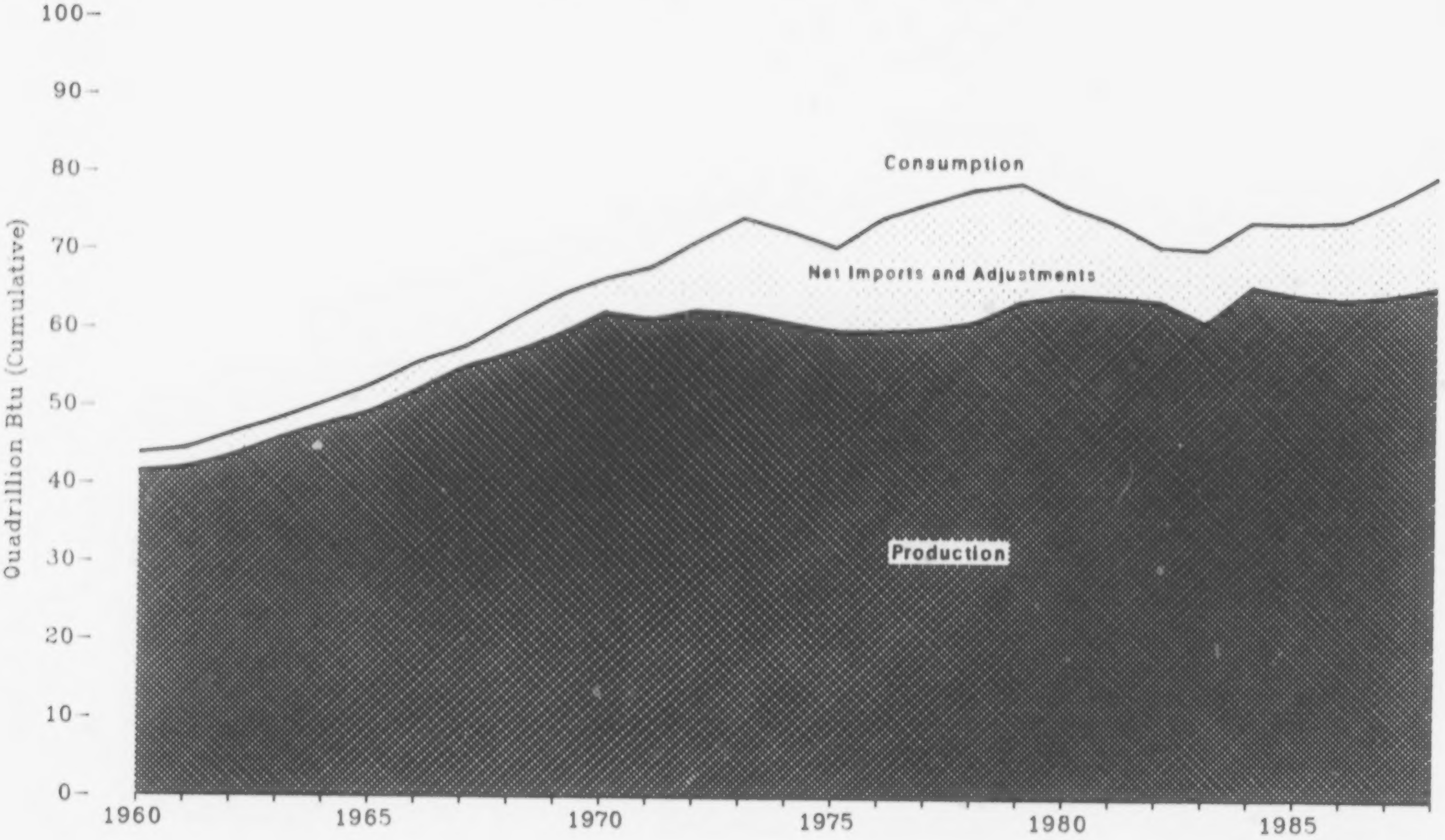
U.S. ENERGY OVERVIEW: 1960-1988



Source: U.S. Department of Energy. Annual Energy Review 1988. P.6.

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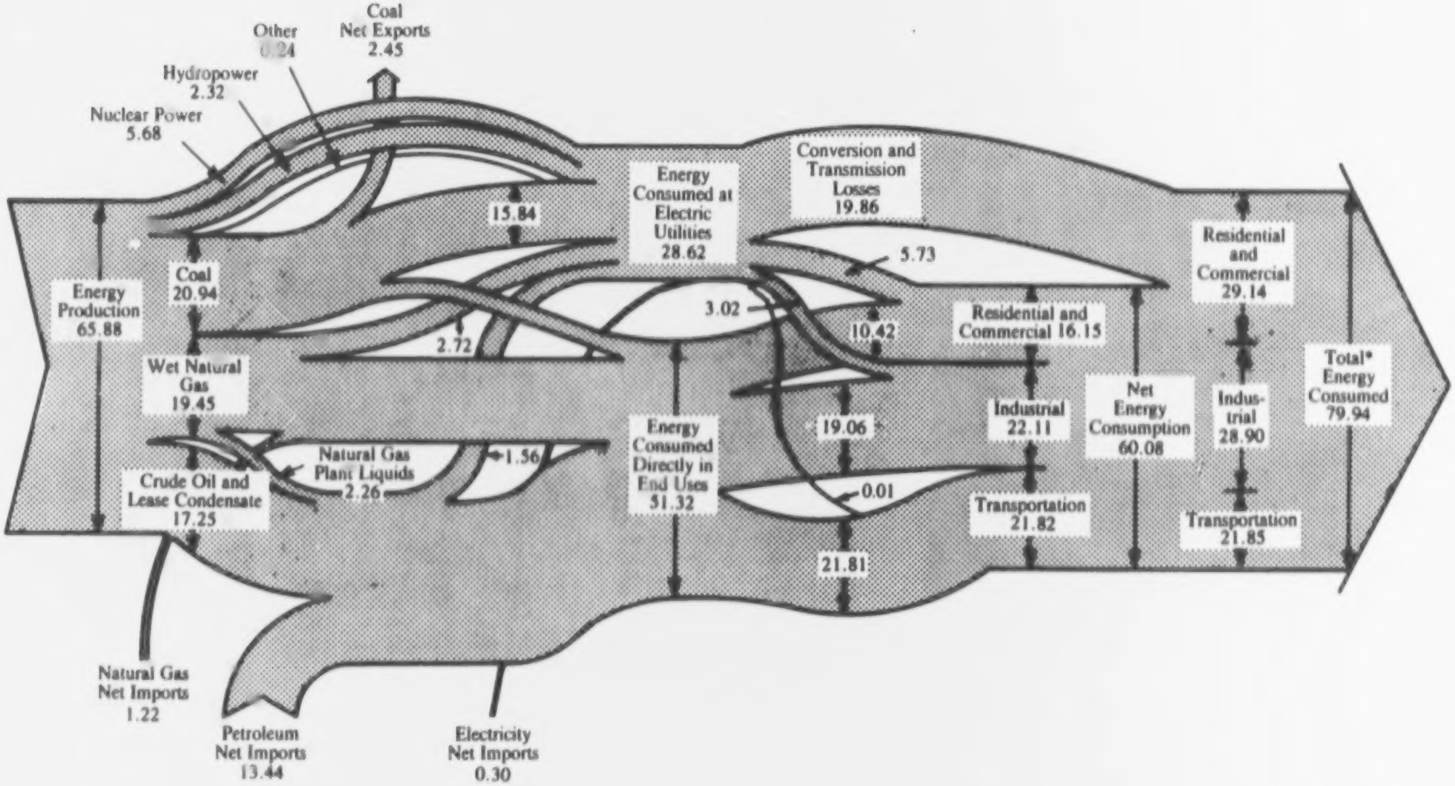
TOTAL U.S. ENERGY FLOW, 1988

(Quadrillion Btu)


Other
0.24
Coal
Net Exports
2.45
Hydropower
2.32
Nuclear Power
5.68
15.84
Energy
Consumed at
Electric
Utilities
28.62
Conversion and
Transmission
Losses
19.86
5.73
Energy
Production
65.88
Coal
20.94
3.02
10.42
Residential and
Commercial 16.15
Residential
and
Commercial
29.14
2.72
Wet Natural
Gas
19.45
Net
Energy
Consumption
60.08
Indus-
trial
28.90
Total*
Energy
Consumed
79.94
Industrial
22.11
19.06
Natural Gas
Plant Liquids
2.26
1.56
Energy
Consumed
Directly in
End Uses
51.32
Crude Oil and
Lease Condensate
17.25
0.01
Transportation
21.82
Transportation
21.85
21.81
Natural Gas
Net Imports
1.22
Petroleum
Net Imports
13.44
Electricity
Net Imports
0.30

---

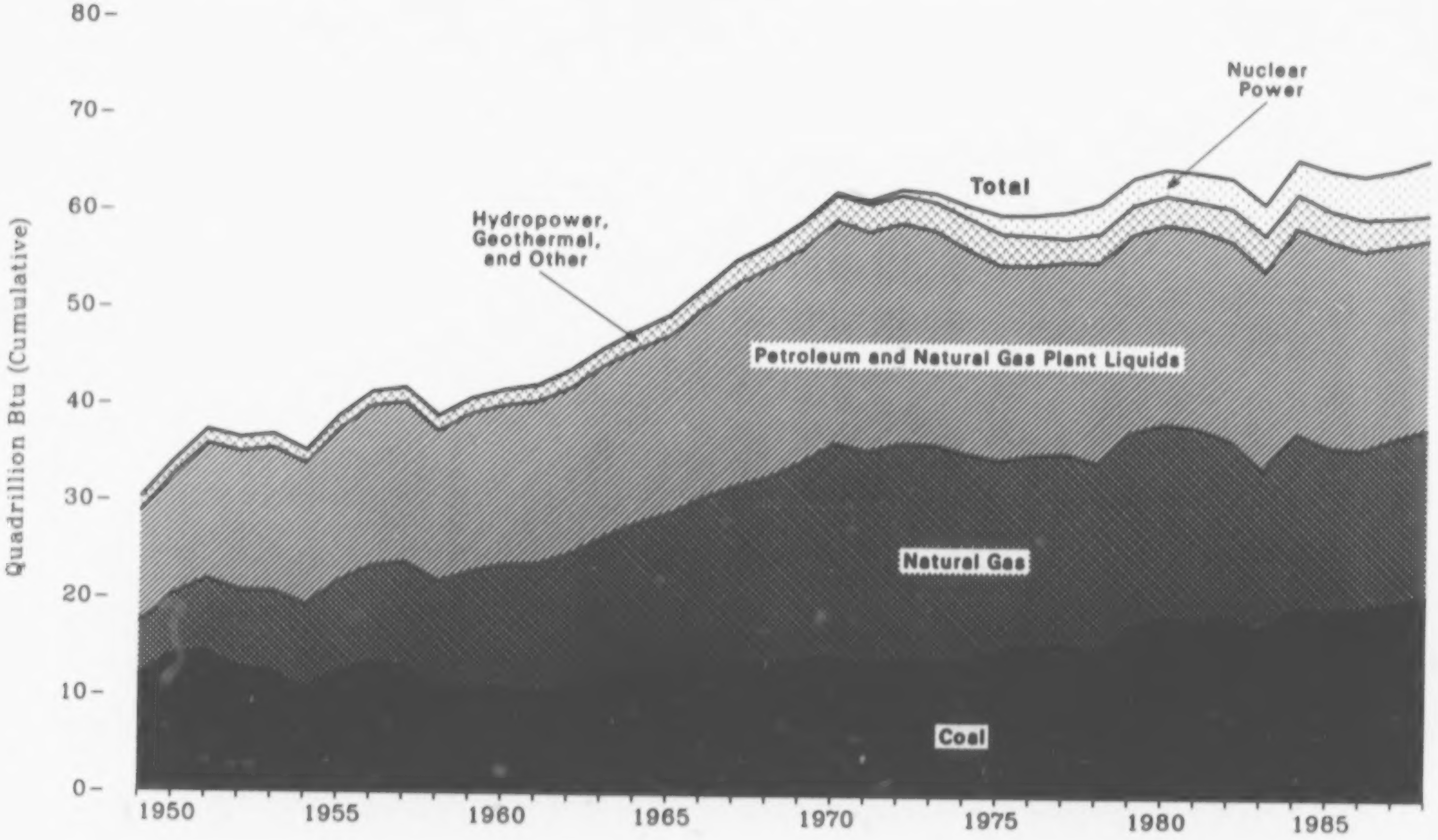
* Total energy consumed with conversion and transmission losses allocated to end-use sectors in proportion to the sectors' use of electricity.

Note: Sum of components does not equal total due to independent rounding; the use of preliminary conversion factors; and the exclusion of changes in stocks, miscellaneous supply and disposition, and unaccounted for quantities.

Sources: See Tables 2, 4, 5, and 87.

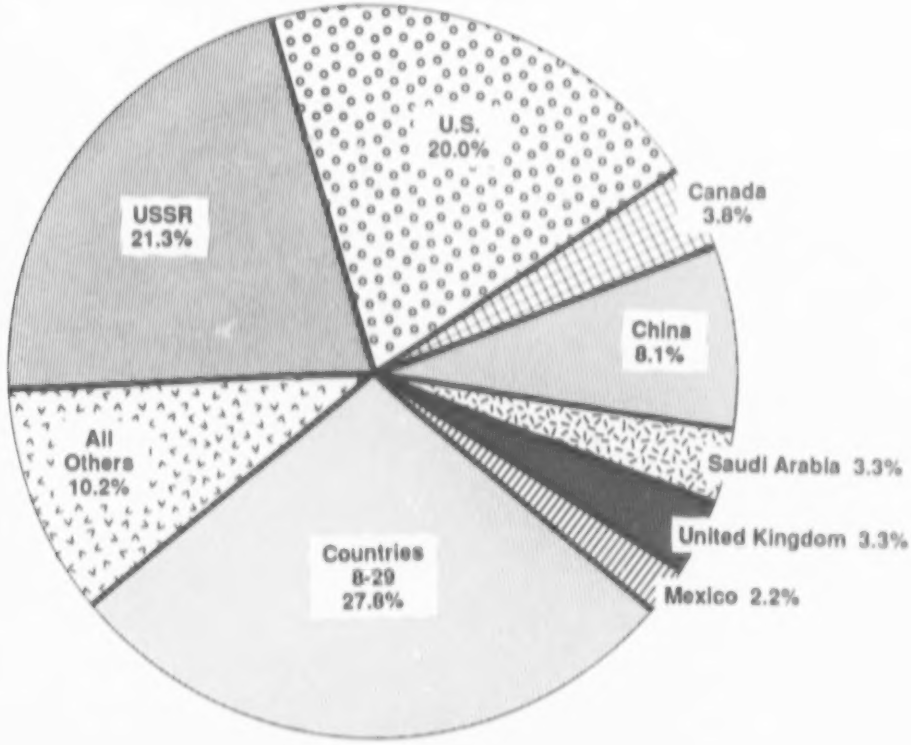
Source: U.S. Department of Energy, Annual Energy Review 1988, P.5.

U.S. PRODUCTION OF ENERGY BY SOURCE: 1949- 1988



Source: U.S. Department of Energy. Annual Energy Review 1988. P.8.

THE WORLD'S LARGEST PRODUCERS OF PRIMARY ENERGY U.S. SHARE IN 1987 WAS 20%



Percentage Shares of World Total for 1987:
321.33 Quadrillion (10^{15}) Btu

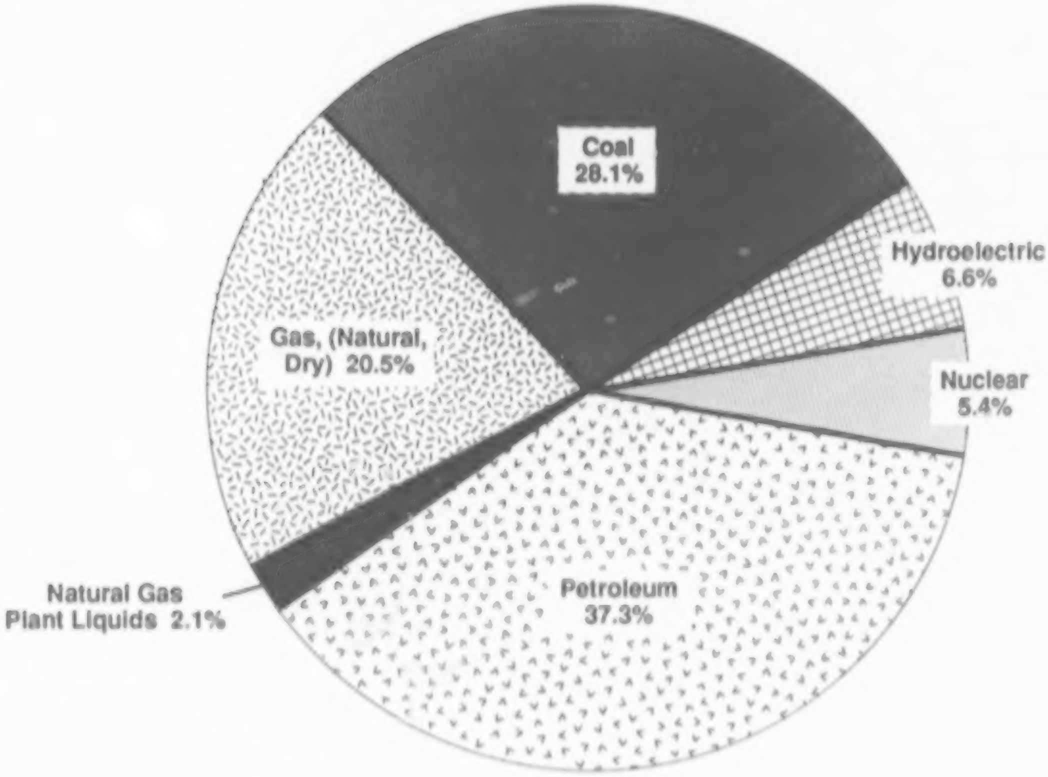
Countries Ranked 8-29

8.	Australia	1.9%	19.	France	1.2%
9.	India	1.8%	20.	Algeria	1.2%
10.	Poland	1.8%	21.	Brazil	1.1%
11.	W. Germany	1.8%	22.	Kuwait	1.0%
12.	Iran	1.8%	23.	Japan	1.0%
13.	Venezuela	1.6%	24.	Nigeria	0.9%
14.	Norway	1.4%	25.	E. Germany	0.9%
15.	Iraq	1.4%	26.	Romania	0.8%
16.	Indonesia	1.3%	27.	Egypt	0.7%
17.	South Africa	1.3%	28.	Netherlands	0.9%
18.	UAE	1.3%	29.	Libya	0.8%

World Eagle chart and table based on data in U.S. Department of Energy's International Energy Annual 1987. Released for printing October 6, 1988. Pp. 2&3.

FOCUS Section

COMPONENTS OF WORLD PRIMARY ENERGY PRODUCTION, 1987



World Total 1987: 321.33 Quads (10^{15}) Btu

World Eagle chart based on data in U.S. Department of Energy's International Energy Annual 1987. Released for printing October 6, 1988. Pp. 2 & 3.

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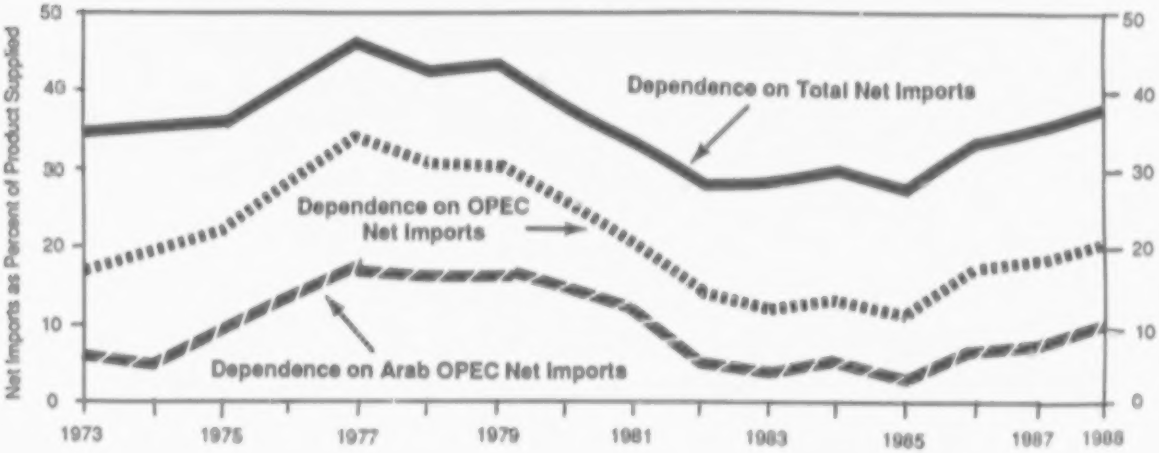
An Example of World Interdependence -- IN 1988, 42.7% OF THE PRIMARY ENERGY THE U.S. CONSUMED WAS PETROLEUM. 38.1% OF THAT PETROLEUM WAS IMPORTED (DOWN FROM A HIGH OF 46.5% IN 1977, BUT THE 5TH INCREASE IN THE LAST SIX YEARS).



Net Imports[a] as Percent of U.S. Petroleum Products Supplied

	From Arab OPEC[b] Countries	From All OPEC[c] Countries	From All Countries
		Percent	
1973 Average	5.3	17.3	34.8
1974 Average	4.5	19.7	35.4
1975 Average	8.5	22.0	35.8
1976 Average	13.9	29.0	40.6
1977 Average	17.3	33.6	46.5
1978 Average	15.7	30.5	42.5
1979 Average	16.5	30.4	43.1
1980 Average	14.9	25.2	37.3
1981 Average	11.5	20.6	33.6
1982 Average	5.6	14.0	28.1
1983 Average	4.1	12.1	28.3
1984 Average	5.2	13.0	30.0
1985 Average	3.0	11.6	27.3
1986 Average	7.1	17.4	33.4
1987 Average	7.6	18.3	35.5
1988 Average	10.6	20.3	38.1

[a] Net imports equals imports minus exports. Imports from members of OPEC exclude indirect imports, which are petroleum products imported primarily from Caribbean and West European areas and refined from crude oil produced by OPEC.

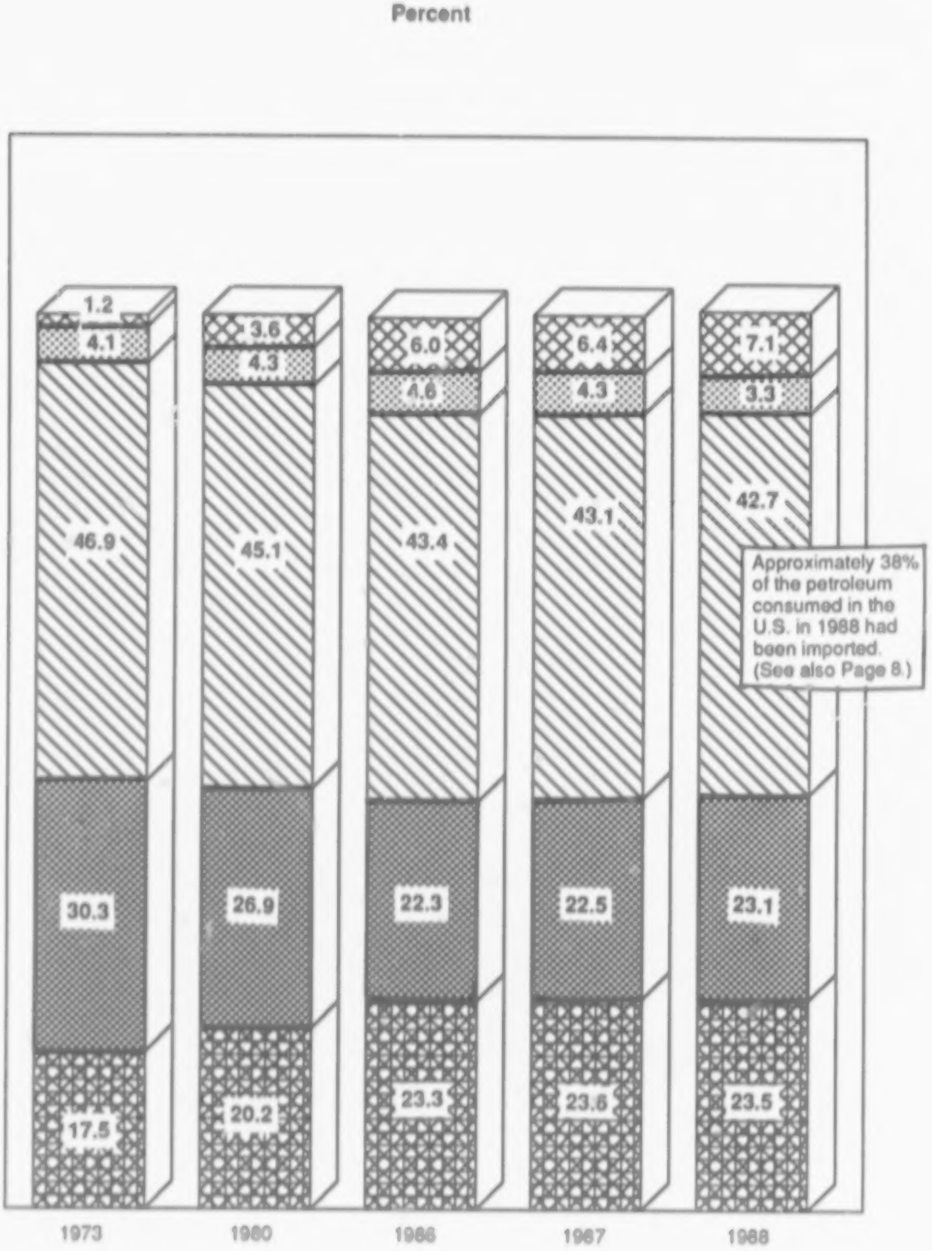
[b] The Arab members of OPEC are Algeria, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates. Net imports from the Neutral Zone between Kuwait and Saudi Arabia are included in net imports from "Arab OPEC".

[c] OPEC consists of Ecuador, Gabon, Indonesia, Iran, Nigeria, and Venezuela, as well as the Arab members.

Source: U.S. Department of Energy. Monthly Energy Review, May 1988 and May 1989. Pp. 13 & 19.

FOCUS Section

U.S. CONSUMPTION OF PRIMARY ENERGY BY SOURCE



Approximately 38% of the petroleum consumed in the U.S. in 1988 had been imported. (See also Page 8.)

Figures do not sum to 100 percent because of internal rounding.

World Eagle chart from data in U.S. Department of Energy's Monthly Energy Review, May 1985, June 1986, May 1987, May 1988, May 1989.

WORLD ENERGY RESERVES

Crude Oil

Estimated number of years that current reserves would last at current level of production: 46

World crude oil reserves were estimated between 803 billion barrels and 890 billion barrels as of January 1, 1988. More than half (58 to 63 percent) were found in the Middle East. The countries with largest reserve totals were:

1. Saudi Arabia
2. Iraq
3. Kuwait
4. United Arab Emirates
5. Iran
6. U.S.S.R.
7. Venezuela
8. Mexico.

These eight countries account for 78 to 81 percent of the world's crude oil reserves. The United States, accounting for about 3 percent of the total world reserve.

Natural Gas

Estimated number of years that current reserves would last at current level of production: 57.

World natural gas reserves were estimated to be about 3.8 quadrillion cubic feet as of January 1, 1988. The U.S.S.R. accounted for about 38 percent and the Middle East for 30 percent of the world total. Iran hosts the largest gas reserve in the Middle East, accounting for 13 percent of the world total or nearly 500 trillion cubic feet. The United Arab Emirates enjoys the third place position in world natural gas reserves, accounting for 5 percent of the total or about 200 trillion cubic feet, followed closely by the United States where reserves were estimated at nearly 190 trillion cubic feet also accounting for about 5 percent of the world total.

Significant reserves are also located in Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Norway, Algeria, Venezuela, and Canada.

Each of these countries' reserves approach or exceed 100 trillion cubic feet and combined account for about one fifth of total world reserves. The remaining world gas reserves are considerably smaller and distributed throughout all regions.

Coal

Recoverable world coal reserves were estimated in excess of one trillion short tons. More than 70 percent of the recoverable reserve total is ranked as anthracite and bituminous coal, of which approximately one-fifth is recoverable by surface mining.

The United States hosts the world's largest recoverable coal reserves estimated at 291 billion short tons. Anthracite and bituminous rank coals constitute 88 percent of this total.

The U.S.S.R. recoverable coal reserve is estimated at nearly 270 billion short tons with 61 percent in anthracite and bituminous coals. The top seven nations with major recoverable reserves are:

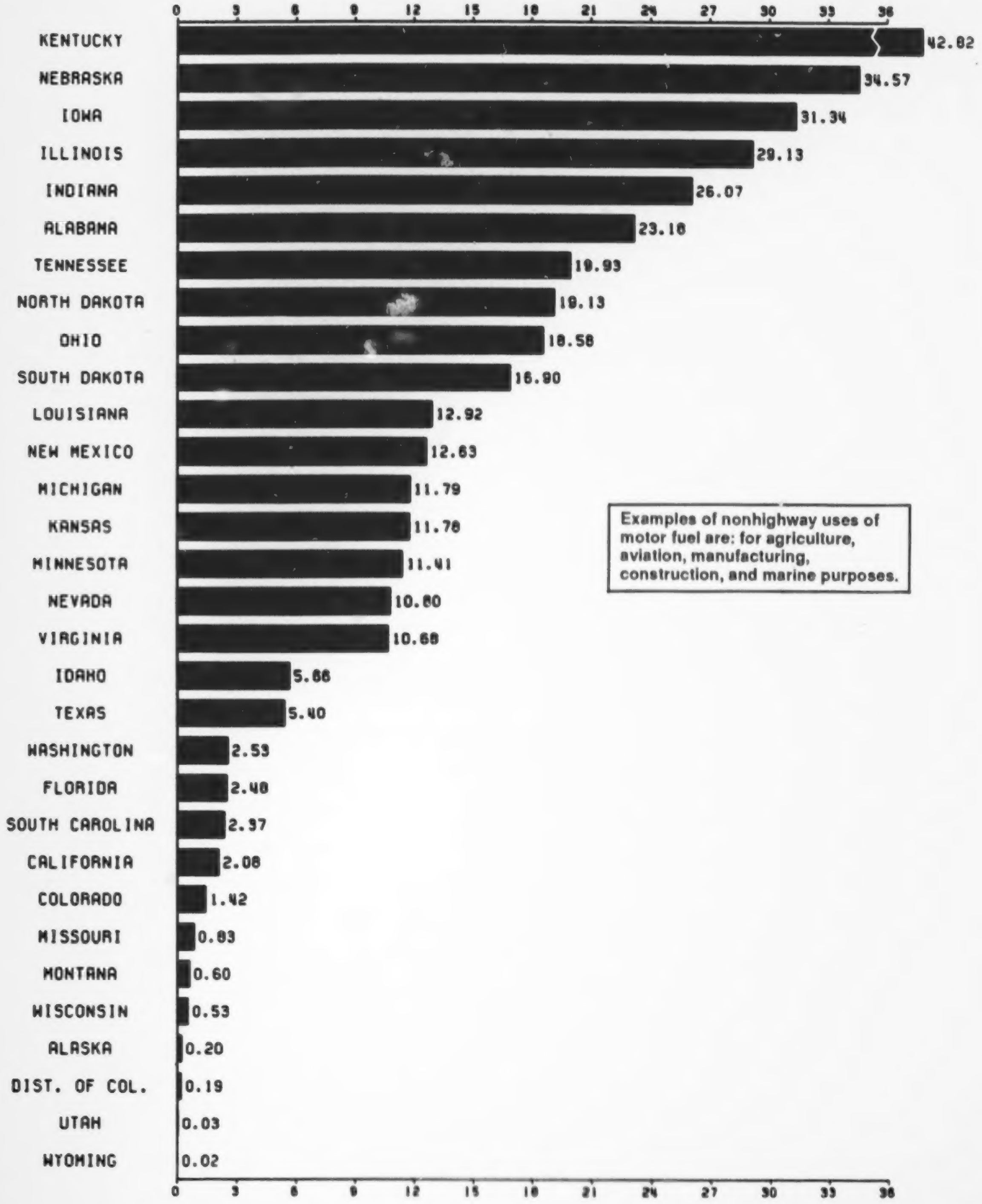
1. United States (291 billion short tons)
2. U.S.S.R. (270 billion short tons)
3. China (109 billion short tons)
4. Australia (72 billion short tons)
5. West Germany (65 billion short tons)
6. South Africa (64 billion short tons)
7. Poland (47 billion short tons).

These seven countries accounted for over 918 billion short tons or for 90 percent of the world's estimated recoverable reserves of coal.

Source: U.S. Department of Energy. International Energy Annual 1987. P.75. Estimates of duration of crude oil reserves and natural gas reserves: Cambridge Energy Research Associates as cited in The New York Times, Sunday, October 15, 1989. P. E5.

GASOHOL AS A PERCENT OF U.S. HIGHWAY USE GASOLINE: 1987

Gasohol Is Included With Gasoline In The Source Cited.



Examples of nonhighway uses of motor fuel are: for agriculture, aviation, manufacturing, construction, and marine purposes.

Source: U.S. Department of Transportation, Federal Highway Administration, Highway Statistics 1987, 1989, P.14.

SOME THOUGHTS ON GLOBAL CARBON DIOXIDE EMISSIONS BY THE INTERNATIONAL ATOMIC ENERGY AGENCY

The following has been excerpted from an article in The International Atomic Energy Agency's IAEA Bulletin, 1989, Vol.31, No.2. Pp.16,18.19

Energy Production

Estimates of the contribution of energy production to emissions of greenhouse gases reflect a broad range.

Global carbon dioxide emissions by fuel. Since 1950 there has been a steady increase of CO_2 emissions with peaks after the oil crises in 1975 and 1979. While the 1979 oil crisis led to a stabilization of oil consumption, natural gas consumption continued its upward trend. Coal consumption showed a significant increase even above its historical trend. It thus assumed the lead role in CO_2 emissions that it had before the late 1960s. This resulted in a record level of CO_2 emissions in 1986. This actual development stands in sharp contrast to all recommendations of the scientific community to reduce CO_2 emissions. Present plans for increasing coal consumption will worsen the situation dramatically.

It should be noted that, if present forecasts for the year 2000 come true, China alone would use more coal than all the countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) today. The projected world increase of 40% is roughly equal to the present consumption of OECD countries or about twice the consumption of the United States (See table below.)

Forecasts of Coal Consumption

(million tons of oil equivalent per year)

	1985-86	2000	Increase
China	700	1400	+100%
USA	680	900	+ 32%
Australia	43	62	+ 44%
India	140	440	+214%
World TOTAL	3200	4500	+ 40%
OECD Share of TOTAL	1200	1640	+ 37%

Since 1950, there has been a rapid increase in CO_2 emissions from developing countries and a relative decrease of the contribution from industrialized countries. With very few exceptions, *per caput* emissions have drastically increased since 1950. The large differences in today's *per caput* emissions also indicate how difficult it would be to reach an agreement among countries to reduce CO_2 emissions by 20% by the year 2005. It is obvious that any stabilization of CO_2 emissions can only be reached if all countries contribute. However, different strategies are necessary depending on the status of technological capabilities of countries and the availability of alternatives.

Carbon dioxide emissions by sector. Another important aspect of CO_2 emissions is their distribution by sector of economy. Electricity production plans an important role. (See accompanying table on page 13.) For the world, roughly one-third of CO_2 emissions are due to electricity production; one-quarter to industry; less than one-fifth each to transport and other activities (including services, agriculture and households) and less than one-tenth to conversion losses and uses of processing industries. The percentage from electricity production varies between 19% for Latin America and 43% for countries of the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA).

The importance of electricity production has increased at a much higher rate than gross national product (GNP) or energy production. In OECD countries, total energy production over the period 1973-85 has increased by only 4% whereas electricity production has grown by 39%. For the world, electricity production has increased by 57% during that time.

Policy Options to control carbon dioxide emissions

...It is necessary to restructure the energy system in such a way that lower levels of CO_2 are emitted when supply a unit of energy services.

The basic options for doing so are:

- More efficient use of carbon-based primary energy. This would also lead to lower emissions of all energy-related greenhouse gases.

- Switching from coal to fuels emitting less CO_2. Such "fuel switching" would also lead to a reduction of environmental pollution. However, the impact on greenhouse gases other than CO_2 is rather small. Switching to natural gas will lead to larger emissions of methane (losses are generally estimated to be fractions of 1% in distribution). Per molecule, however, methane is 32 times more effective as a greenhouse gas than CO_2.

- Use of nuclear power. Nuclear power leads to no emission of greenhouse gases. In addition to production of electricity, future applications might be extended to production of process heat for industrial and other purposes and production of special fuels for transport which do not produce greenhouse gases.

- Use of renewable energy sources (such as solar, wind, and biomass). Renewable energy sources do not emit greenhouse gases. Presently, these techniques are not available at economic costs and unless major technological breakthroughs are made, their use is limited to small-scale decentralized applications. These, however, add up to significant amounts in countries with favourable conditions.

- Pursuing mitigating strategies. They include such diverse measures as reforestation or dumping of CO_2 into deep ocean water or depleted oil or gas fields.... ◆

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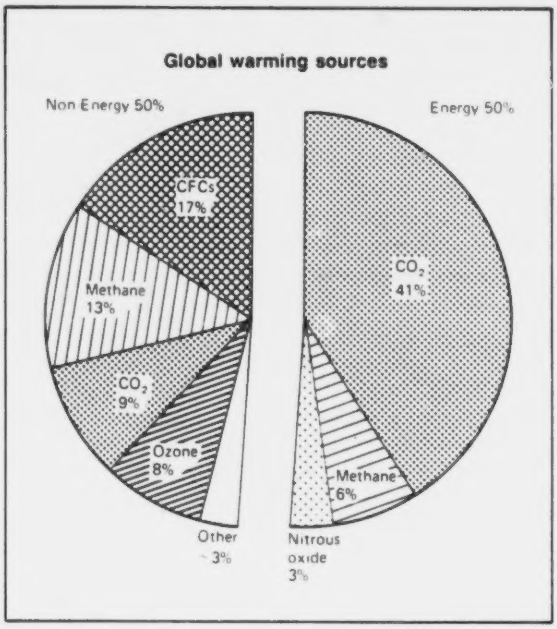
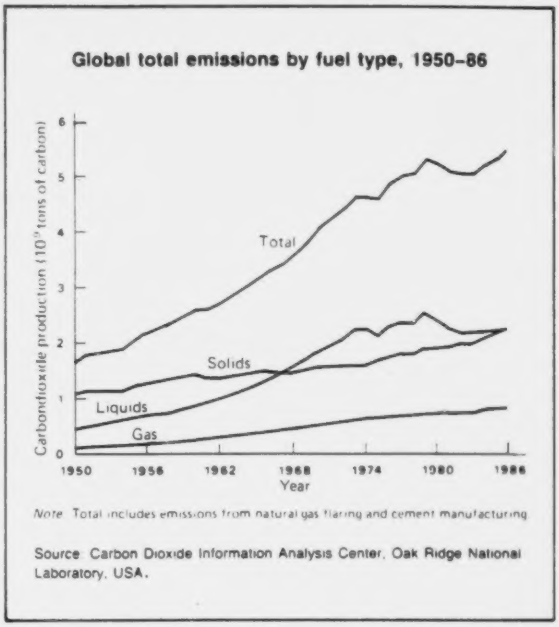
GLOBAL CARBON DIOXIDE EMISSIONS



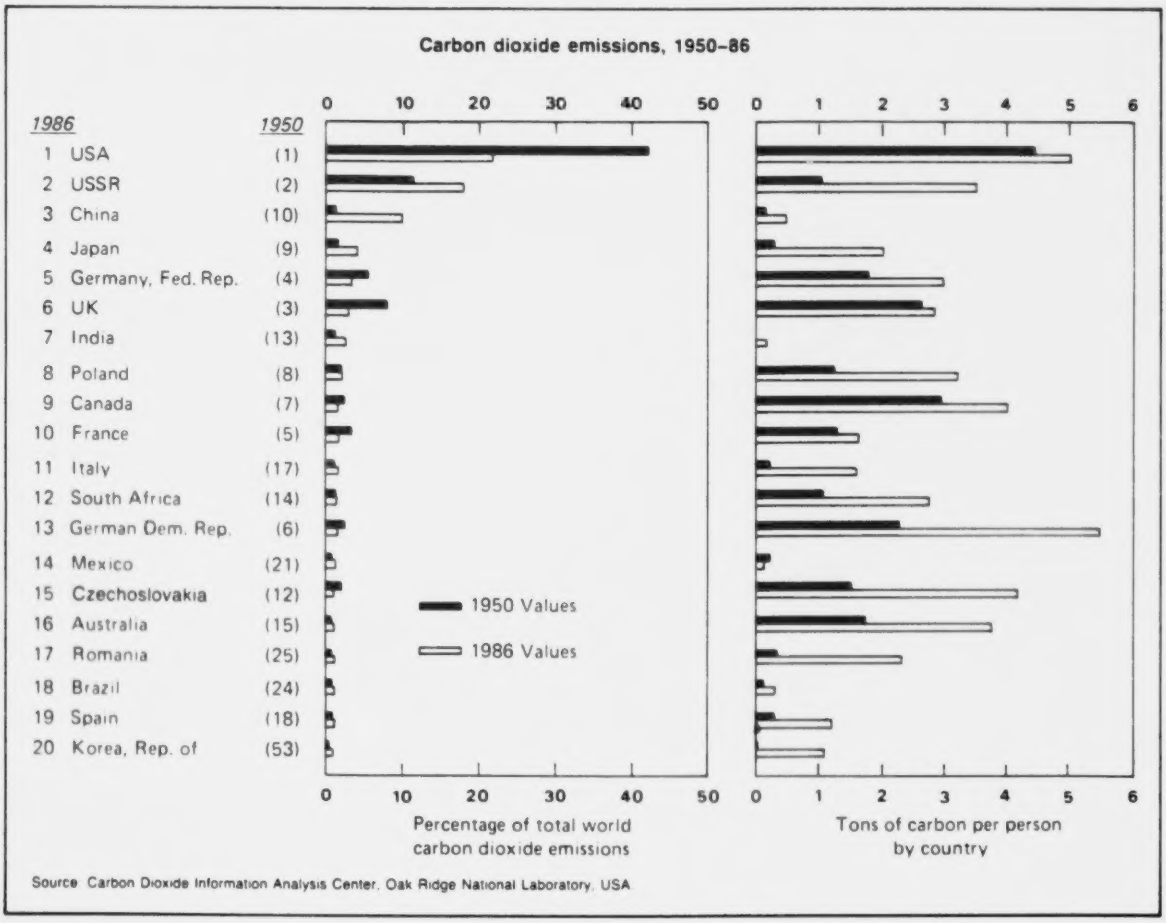
Global warming sources



Global total emissions by fuel type, 1950–86

Note: Total includes emissions from natural gas flaring and cement manufacturing

Source: Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, USA.

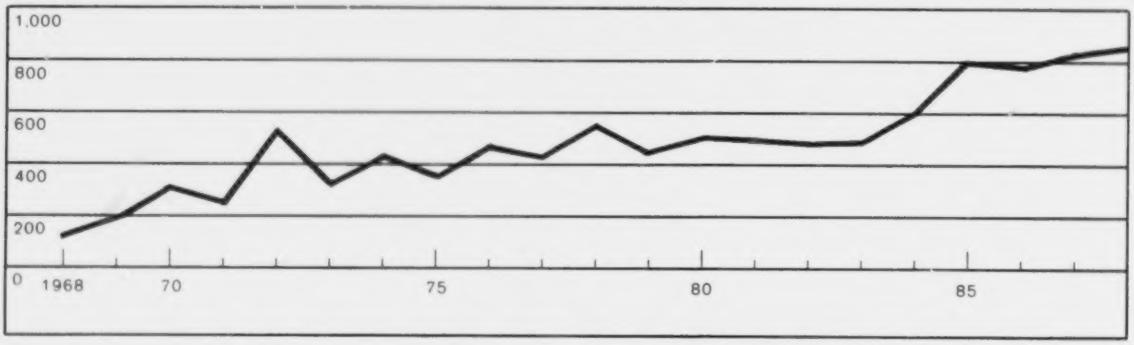


Carbon dioxide emissions, 1950–86

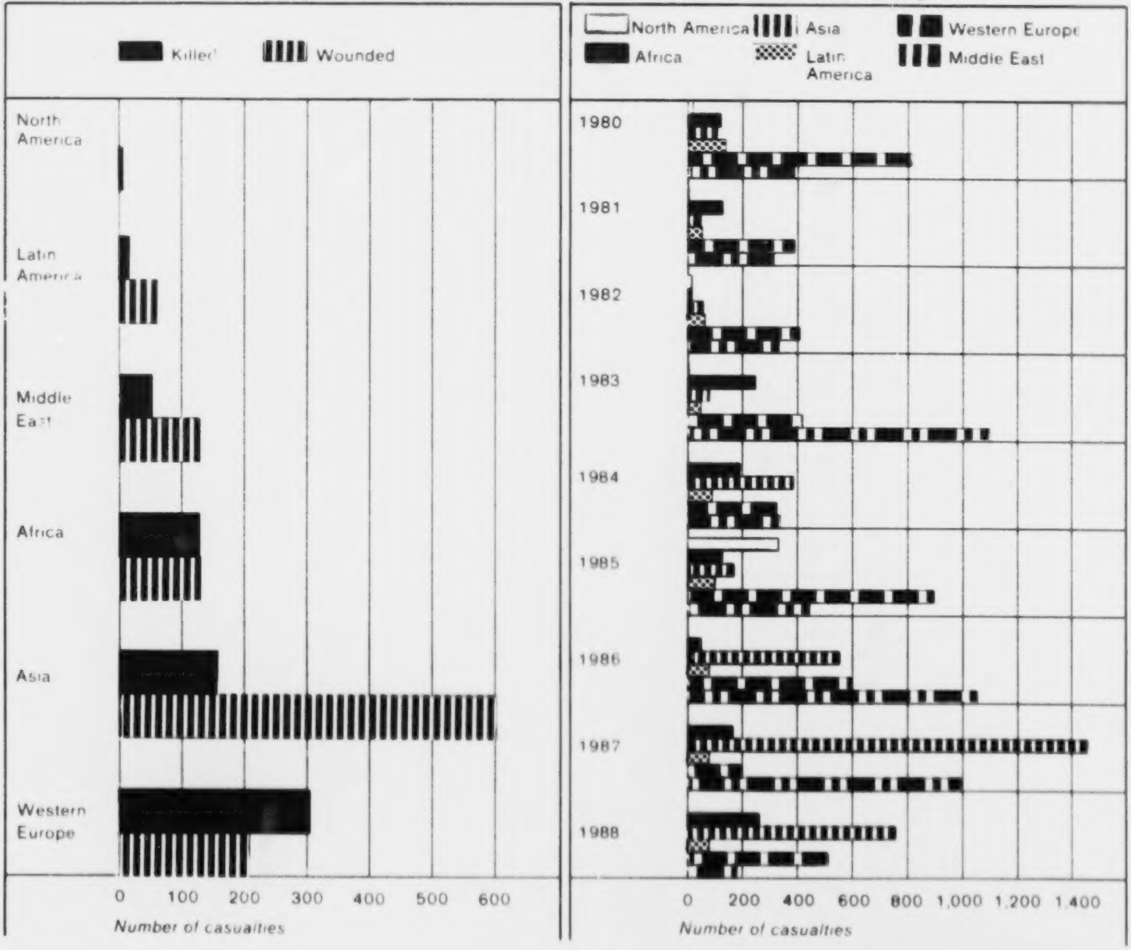
Source: Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, USA

Source: The International Atomic Energy Agency. IAEA Bulletin, 1989, Vol.31. No. 2. Pp. 17.

INTERNATIONAL TERRORIST INCIDENTS OVER TIME


1968-88

CASUALTIES CAUSED BY INTERNATIONAL TERRORIST INCIDENTS


1988, by Region

1980-88, by Region

Source: U.S. Department of State. Patterns of Global Terrorism: 1988. Released March 1989. Received September 25, 1989. Page 2 and Corrected Page 9.

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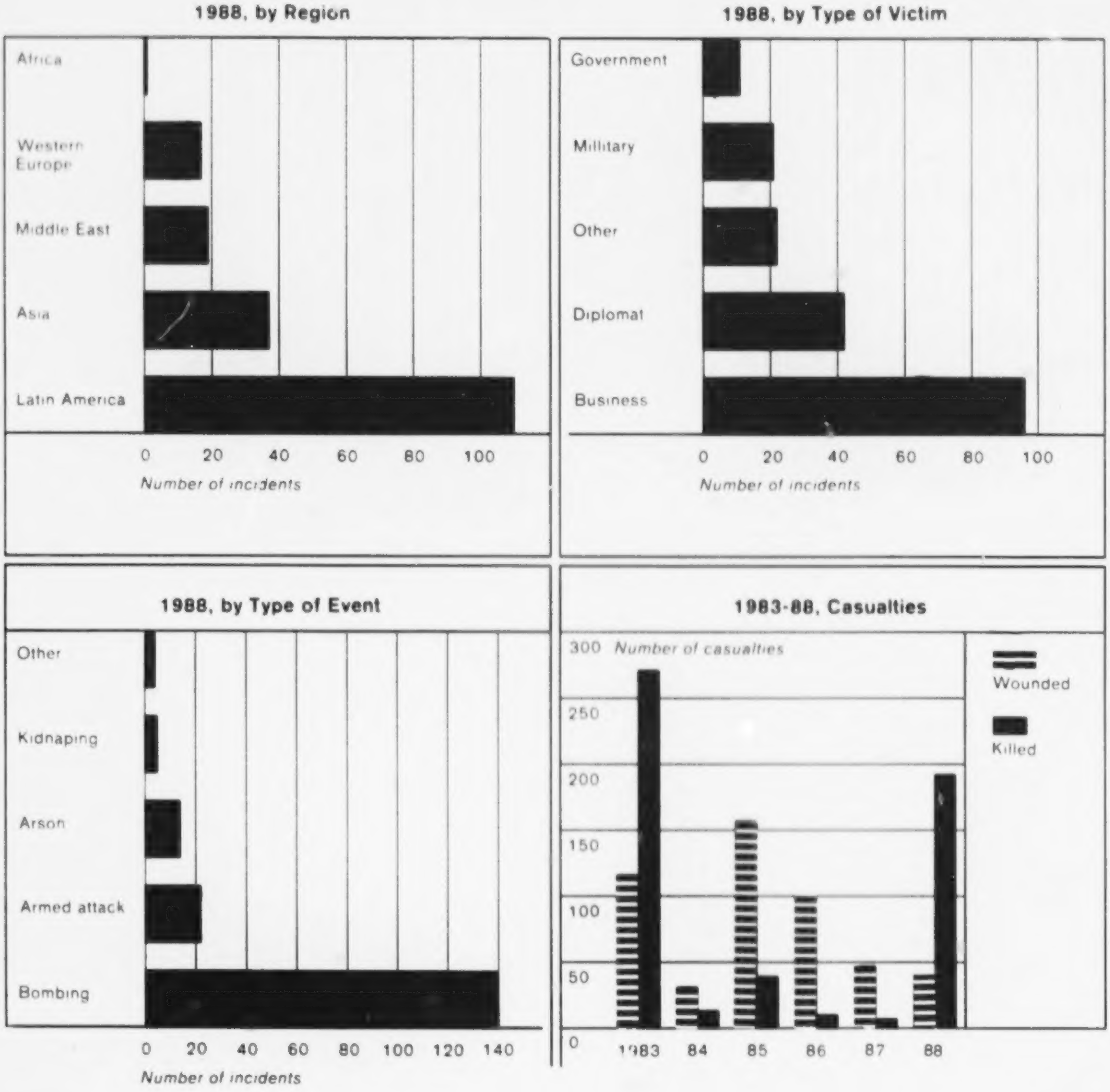
ANTI-U.S. ATTACKS


1988, by Region

1988, by Type of Victim

1988, by Type of Event

1983-88, Casualties

Source: U.S. Department of State. Patterns of Global Terrorism: 1988. Released March 1989. Received September 25, 1989. Corrected Page 5.

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WETLANDS

The material on the next three pages is reprinted from The Congress of the United States. Office of Technology Assessment (OTA). Wetlands: Their Use and Regulation. March 1984. Pp. 25-28.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

Wetlands, including marshes, swamps, bogs, bottom lands, and tundra, occur along sloping areas between upland and deepwater environments, such as rivers, or form in basins that are isolated from larger water bodies. Wetlands are either periodically or continually inundated by water and generally covered by vegetation adapted to saturated soil conditions that emerges through any standing water. Most wetlands have formed as a result of past glaciation, erosion and sedimentation, beaver activity, freezing and thawing in arctic areas, activities of man, and other processes.

ORIGINS OF WETLANDS

The U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (FWS) used the term "wetland" in 1952 to describe a number of diverse environments, typically of high productivity, that share characteristics of both aquatic and terrestrial habitats—i.e., they are at least temporarily inundated and have "emergent" vegetation adapted to saturated soil conditions. While a wide range of environmental conditions exist within this categorization—from salt marshes flooded and exposed daily to bottom land forests inundated only during spring flooding—wetlands also share similar hydrologic and habitat characteristics. These characteristics primarily stem from three interrelated factors: the wetland's origin, hydrology, and vegetation.

Six basic processes are responsible for wetland formation: glaciation, erosion and sedimentation, beaver dams, freezing and thawing, activities of man, and miscellaneous processes (6).

Glaciation

A principal band of wetlands (fig. 1)—lying along the northern tier of the United States, including Alaska, Maine, New York, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, North Dakota, and Washington—was formed in three ways as glaciers melted 9,000 to 12,000 years ago. First, the melting of large blocks of ice left by receding glaciers created pits and depressions in glacial moraines, till, and outwash. Lakes and wetlands formed where the depressions intersected the ground water table or where fine clay and organics sealed their bottoms and permitted the collection of runoff waters. The majority of wetlands in the Northern United States were formed in this manner. Second, glaciers dammed rivers, often creating glacial lakes, sometimes thousands of square miles in area. Once the ice retreated, the lakes were drained partially, resulting in extensive low-lying areas with peat deposits. These areas form some of the large wetlands in the once glaciated Northern States. Third, glaciers scooped out and scoured river valleys and soft bedrock deposits, creating large and deep lakes such as the Great Lakes, and shallow depressions and wetland areas, such as the prairie potholes.

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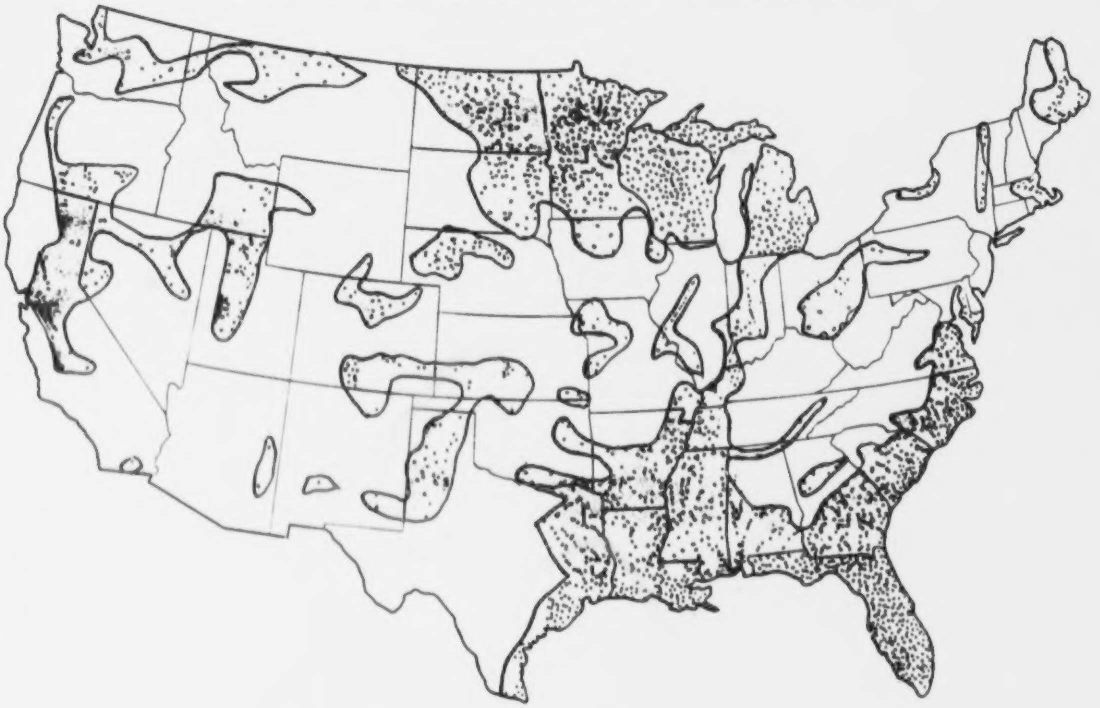
WETLANDS continued

Figure 1.—General Distribution of Wetlands of the United States



Note: Shaded portions incorporate general wetland areas. Each dot represents about 10,000 acres.

SOURCE: Adapted from Samuel P. Shaw and C. Gordon Fredine, "Wetlands of the United States: Their Extent and Their Value to Waterfowl and Other Wildlife," Fish and Wildlife Service, U.S. Department of the Interior, Circular 39, 1956.

Erosion and Sedimentation

Another principal band of wetlands is found (fig. 1) along the gulf and Atlantic coasts, where sediment has been deposited in the still waters behind barrier islands or reefs and in bays and estuaries. Wetland formation is favored by low-elevation topography along the Atlantic and gulf coasts. The sediment deposited behind Georgia coastal marshes, for instance, may be up to 10 meters in thickness and has formed extensive flat or gently sloping topography conducive to growth of wetland plants.

Major wetlands also are located along the flood plains of low-gradient rivers such as the Mississippi. River flood plains are created by the deposition of river alluvium on adjacent lands during floods. Rivers may cut new channels, abandoning old water courses, which may then become lakes or wetlands. Extensive wetland areas, such as the Mississippi Delta, are found where sediment is deposited at the mouths of rivers and streams. The deposition of sand, gravel, or silt also can create wetlands along the shores of, or adjacent to, lakes. Vast marshes of this type form along the Great Lakes.

Beaver Dams

At one time, beaver dams played a major role in forming smaller inland wetlands in the forested areas of the Nation. While beaver populations fluctuate due to variability in trapping pressure, their presence can be a major factor in increasing wetland acreage in some regions of the country. For example, in an analysis of wetland trends in 15 Massa-

continued →

chusetts towns between 1951 and the 1970's, beaver activity was the third most important cause of increases in wetland acreage out of 11 identified factors (9).

Freezing and Thawing

In the Arctic, wetlands are created when the Sun melts the surface of frozen organic soils while the underlying soil remains permanently frozen. In addition, frost action segregates rock and soil particles of various sizes and shifts them in such a way that shallow, water-filled basins are formed.

Activities of Man

Wetlands may develop naturally adjacent to reservoirs, farm ponds, irrigation canals, and in pits and depressions created by mining. Poor drainage due to construction of highways, levees, and buildings also can lead to the development of wetlands. Finally, manmade wetlands can be created intentionally by Federal, State, and local resource agencies and by conservation groups in shallow, protected waters.

Miscellaneous Processes

Wetlands may be formed by other special processes. In the Sandhills of Nebraska and in other areas of the arid West, depressions have been formed by wind action. The Everglades exist because of a flow of ground water and surface water over bedrock at and directly below the surface. In Kentucky, Indiana, and several other States, wetlands are also found in sink holes and other areas where bedrock has been dissolved by percolating water. Geologic movements have shaped still other wetlands. Reelfoot Lake in Tennessee, for example, was formed by the sudden sinking of the earth from earthquakes. Similarly, San Francisco Bay was formed by movement along the San Andreas Fault. ❖

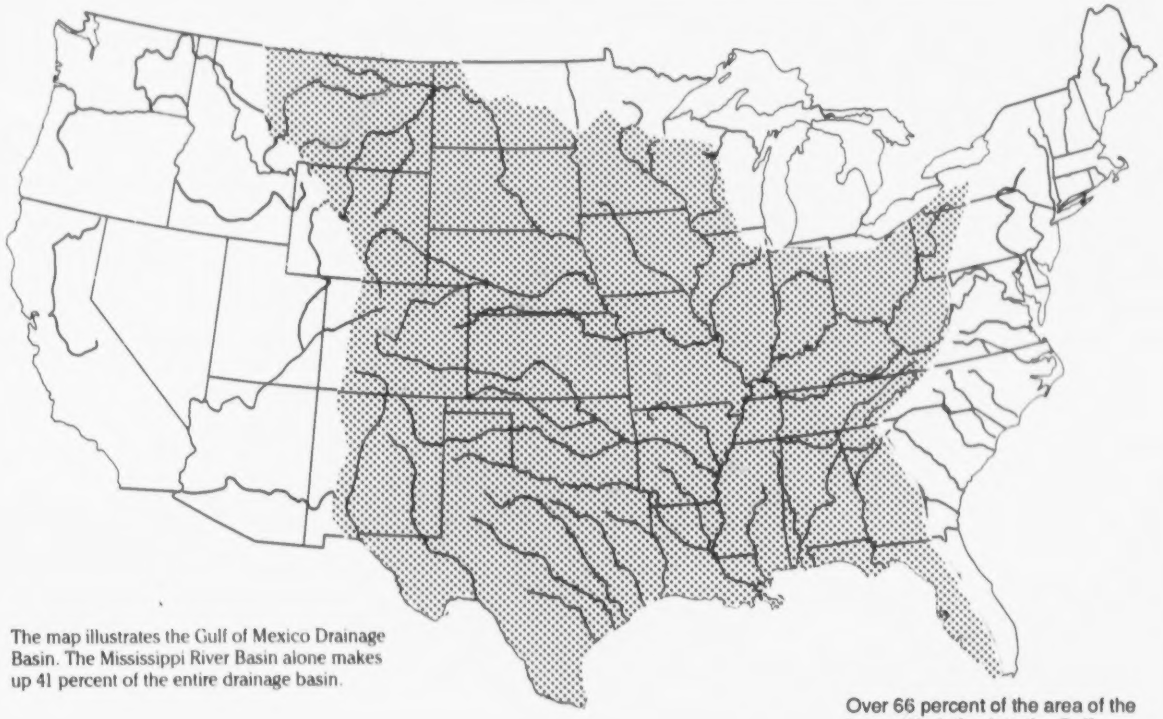
A DESCRIPTION OF THE IMPORTANCE OF THE GULF OF MEXICO TO THE U.S., AND AN UPDATE OF THE GULF OF MEXICO PROGRAM

YOU CAN'T TALK about the Gulf of Mexico without citing statistics: it touches five Southern States: Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas, with a coastline that stretches almost 1,700 miles. It's an exceptionally productive sea, annually yielding more than 2.5 billion pounds of fish and shellfish, representing about 40 percent of the total domestic, commercial fishery market.

The Gulf supports more than one-third of the marine recreational fishing activities, hosting 4 million fishermen who made 24.6 million fishing trips in 1985. About 45 percent of the country's shipping goes through Gulf ports, and 90 percent of the offshore oil and gas comes from there. The Navy has proposed eight strategic homeporting sites along the Gulf Coast.

The coastal estuaries, wetlands, barrier islands, and mangroves provide important habitat for large populations of wildlife. This includes both migrating and nonmigrating waterfowl and shorebirds, and marine life, offering protection and nutrients to thousands of species. It has also become home to one-sixth of the human species of the United States.

In other words, the statistics, more than anything else, give the true magnitude of the Gulf's value. It may be one of the most important natural resources that the United States has.



The map illustrates the Gulf of Mexico Drainage Basin. The Mississippi River Basin alone makes up 41 percent of the entire drainage basin.

Over 66 percent of the area of the Lower 48 drains into the Gulf.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Soil Conservation Service. Soil and Water Conservation News, October 1989. Pp. 3&4.

continued →

GULF OF MEXICO continued

This large body of water that, for so many years, has been viewed as one of the least altered and most healthy and productive of the United States' coastal marine environments is beginning to show strain from environmental and societal pressures. These include algae growth and red tides with consequent fish kills on the beaches, volumes of trash collected daily along the shoreline, habitat destruction, coastal erosion, and shellfish bed closings caused by fecal coliform and toxic contamination. The toxic poisoning indicates contamination by industrial sources and the coliform, which can be of animal or human origin, may indicate inadequate treatment of human or animal waste.

Over 66 percent of the area of the contiguous United States drains into the Gulf (see map). While environmental conditions may be manifested in the Gulf States, many of them result from sources and activities that are regional and which may be far upstream from the sea.

Because the Gulf environment involves so many States, agencies, and organizations, a Gulf of Mexico Program (originally set up in 1986 as The Gulf Initiative) has been developed to provide a forum for defining and addressing environmental problems. It is designed to improve communication among participants and build coalitions to achieve more effective protection of valuable coastal resources.

The Gulf of Mexico Program includes representatives from all appropriate Federal agencies, Gulf States, academia, and all Gulf-user groups, such as representatives from agriculture, the commercial and recreational fishing industries, developers, and citizen action groups.

The most important long-term goal of the Gulf of Mexico Program is to restore, maintain, and protect the Gulf environment. Included in this goal is protecting human health and sustaining living resources, taking action to further control pollution of the waters, and ensuring that alternative uses and economic growth are managed in an environmentally sound manner.

In April 1989, two short-term goals were identified in a "five-year strategy: 1988 – 1992" plan:

Goal 1: The establishment of an effective infrastructure for resolving complex environmental problems associated with human use of the Gulf of Mexico.

The objectives to reach this goal include the establishment and support for a Gulf of Mexico Program Office (set up at the John C. Stennis Space Center near Bay Saint Louis, Miss., in August 1988); the establishment and implementation of a committee structure to include a policy review board (SCS Chief Wilson Scaling is a member of this board); a technical steering committee and a citizens' advisory committee; and establishment of a public education network and outreach program.

Goal 2: The establishment of a framework-for-action for implementing management options for pollution controls, for remedial and restoration measures for environmental losses, and for research direction and environmental monitoring protocol.

The objectives under this goal include preparation of environmental characterizations; preparation of environmental assessments; development of an interactive data management system; development of predictive assessments; development and implementation of a Gulf of Mexico Environmental Management Plan; and development and implementation of a Gulf of Mexico Monitoring Plan.

"The environmental problems in the Gulf are bigger than any of us can handle alone," said L.P. "Pete" Heard, State conservationist in Mississippi. "You don't need a lot of research to know there's a problem. For example, shellfish have been excellent indicators of toxic and coliform pollution. They can be retrieved and levels of contamination measured all year around. When they start dying, the evidence indicates that something's wrong. To solve this problem, we've got to pull together, and that's why I think the Gulf of Mexico Program will be effective." Heard is an SCS representative and co-chair on the nutrient enrichment committee of the Program. He is also the only SCS representative on the technical steering committee.

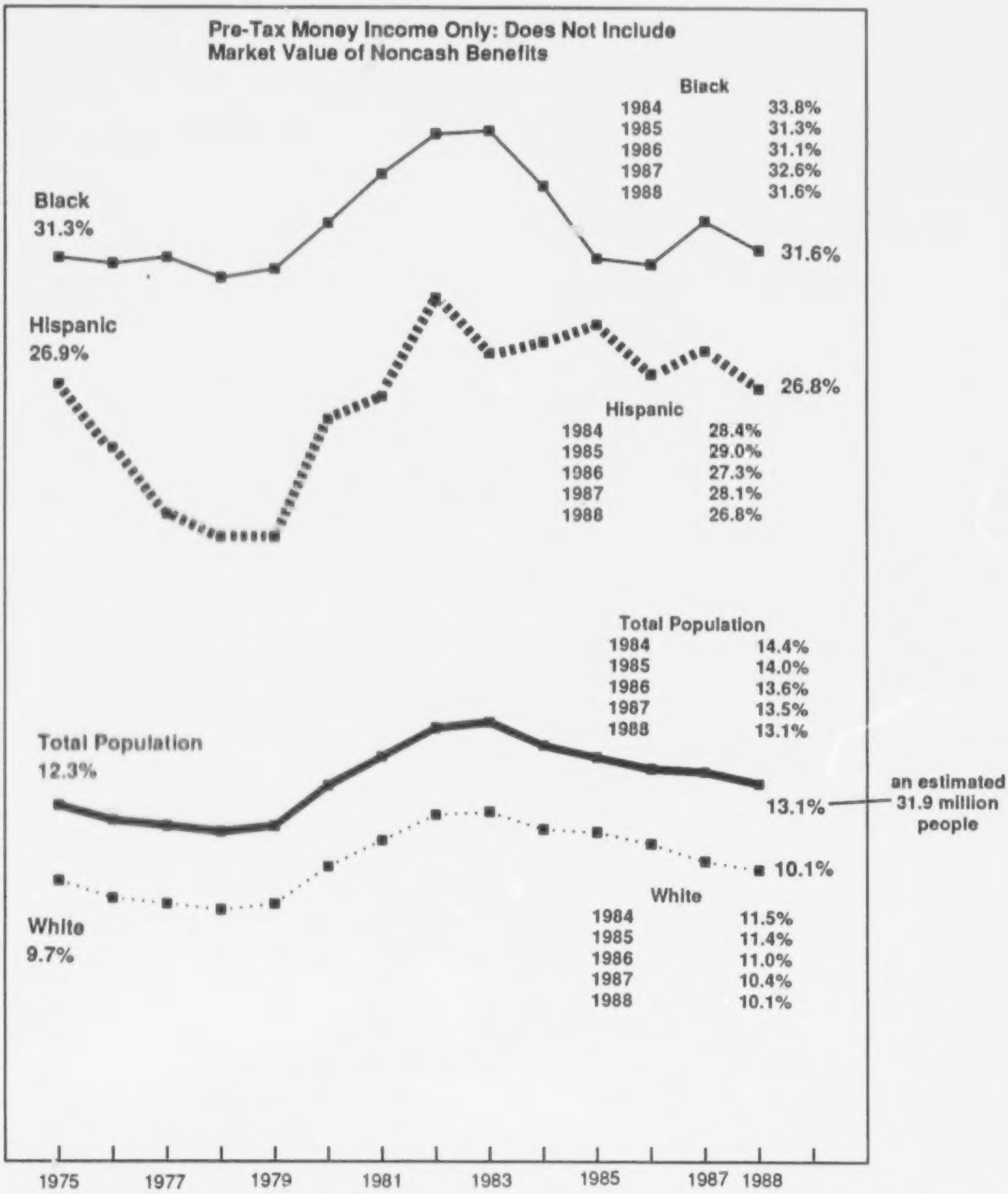
The two short-term goals summarized above are expanded in a paper titled "The Gulf of Mexico Program, Five-Year Strategy: 1988-1992," which is available from the Gulf of Mexico Program Office, Stennis Space Center, Bay St. Louis, MS 39529. ❖

Kathleen Diehl, contributing editor, *Soil and Water Conservation News*, SCS, Washington, D.C.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Soil Conservation Service. Soil and Water Conservation News, October 1989. Pp. 3&4.

THE U.S. BUREAU OF THE CENSUS SAYS NEARLY 32 MILLION AMERICANS LIVE IN POVERTY

(For each category, percentage of the population living below the poverty level. Hispanic people may be of any race.)



Poverty Threshold Cash Income for Family of 4 in 1988: $12,091.

The official poverty measurement, which is adjusted each year to reflect changes in the Consumer Price Index, omits the value of noncash benefits such as food stamps, Medicaid, and housing subsidies.

World Eagle graph. Data from the 1988 Statistical Abstract of the United States, Table 713; and from Bureau of the Census Money Income and Poverty Status in the United States: 1988 (Advance Report). Series P-60, No. 166.

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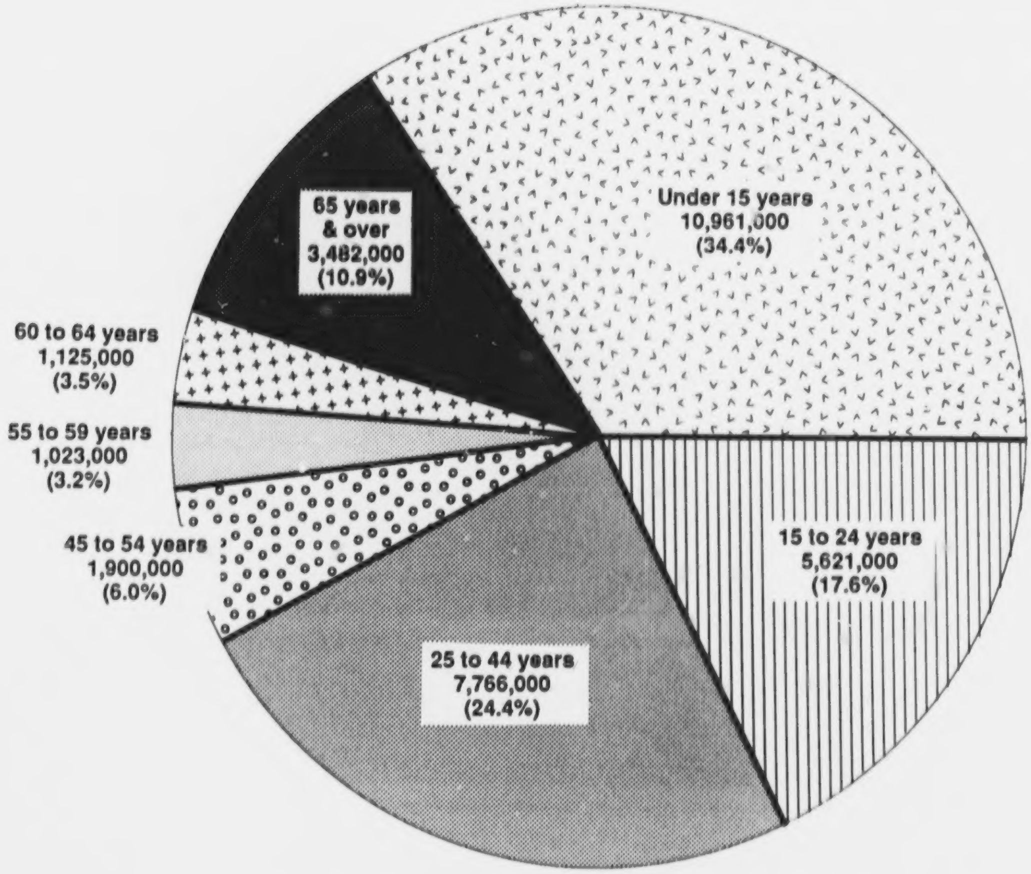
continued

ALMOST 32 MILLION INDIVIDUALS IN THE U.S. WERE ESTIMATED TO BE BELOW POVERTY LEVEL IN 1988

Pre-Tax Money Income Only. Noncash Benefits Not Considered.

In 1988, the Poverty Threshold Pre-Tax Cash Income for Family of 4 was $12,091



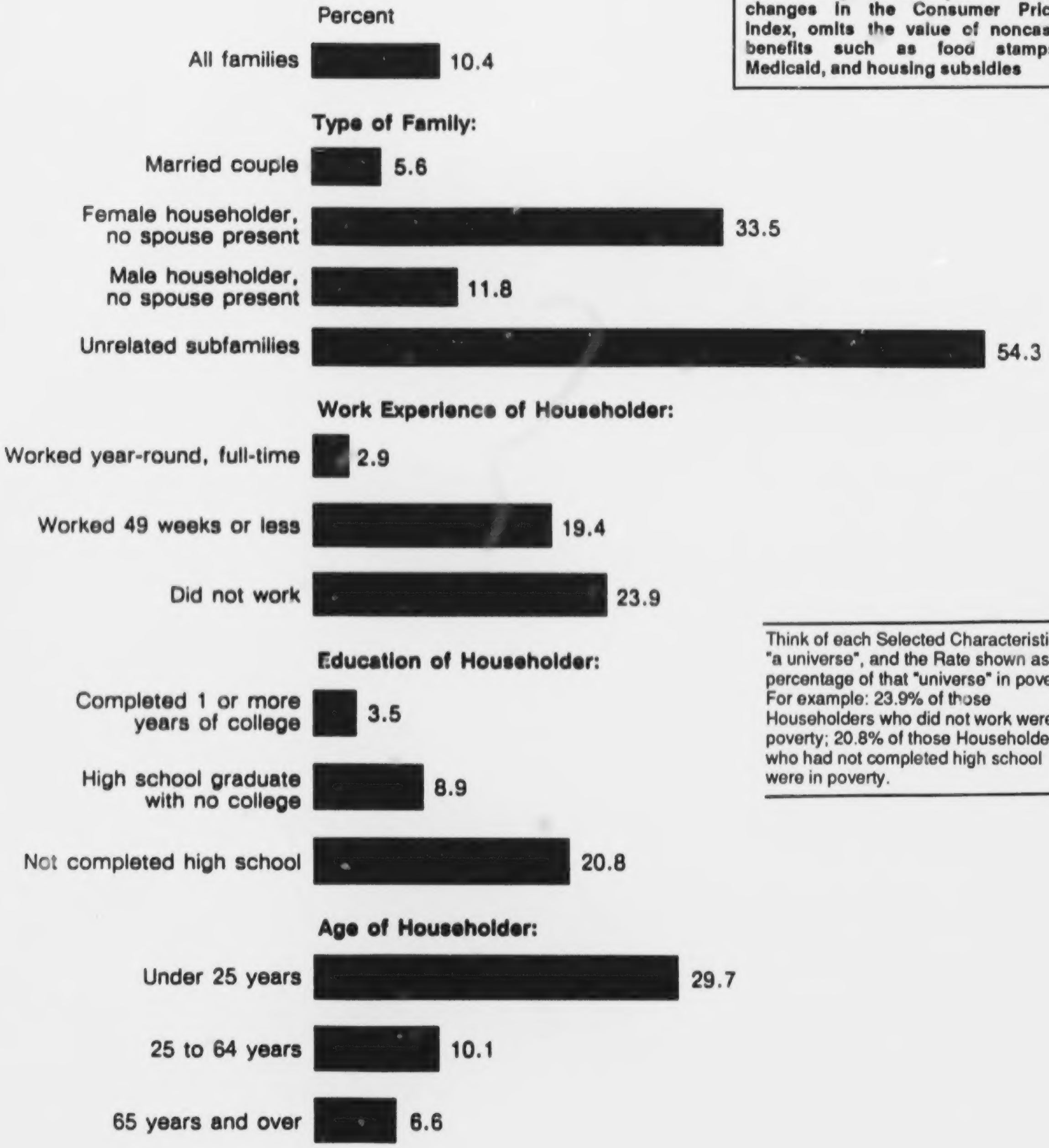
All Persons Estimated to be in Poverty: 31,900,000

The official poverty measurement, which is adjusted each year to reflect changes in the Consumer Price Index, omits the value of noncash benefits such as food stamps, Medicaid, and housing subsidies

World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Bureau of the Census. Money Income and Poverty Status in the United States: 1988 (Advance Report). Series P-60, No. 166. Page 57.

continued

POVERTY RATES FOR FAMILIES WITH SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS: 1988



The official poverty measurement, which is adjusted each year to reflect changes in the Consumer Price Index, omits the value of noncash benefits such as food stamps, Medicaid, and housing subsidies

Think of each Selected Characteristic as "a universe", and the Rate shown as the percentage of that "universe" in poverty. For example: 23.9% of those Householders who did not work were in poverty; 20.8% of those Householders who had not completed high school were in poverty.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Money Income and Poverty Status in the United States: 1988 (Advance Report). Series P-60, No. 166. Figure 2, Page 8.

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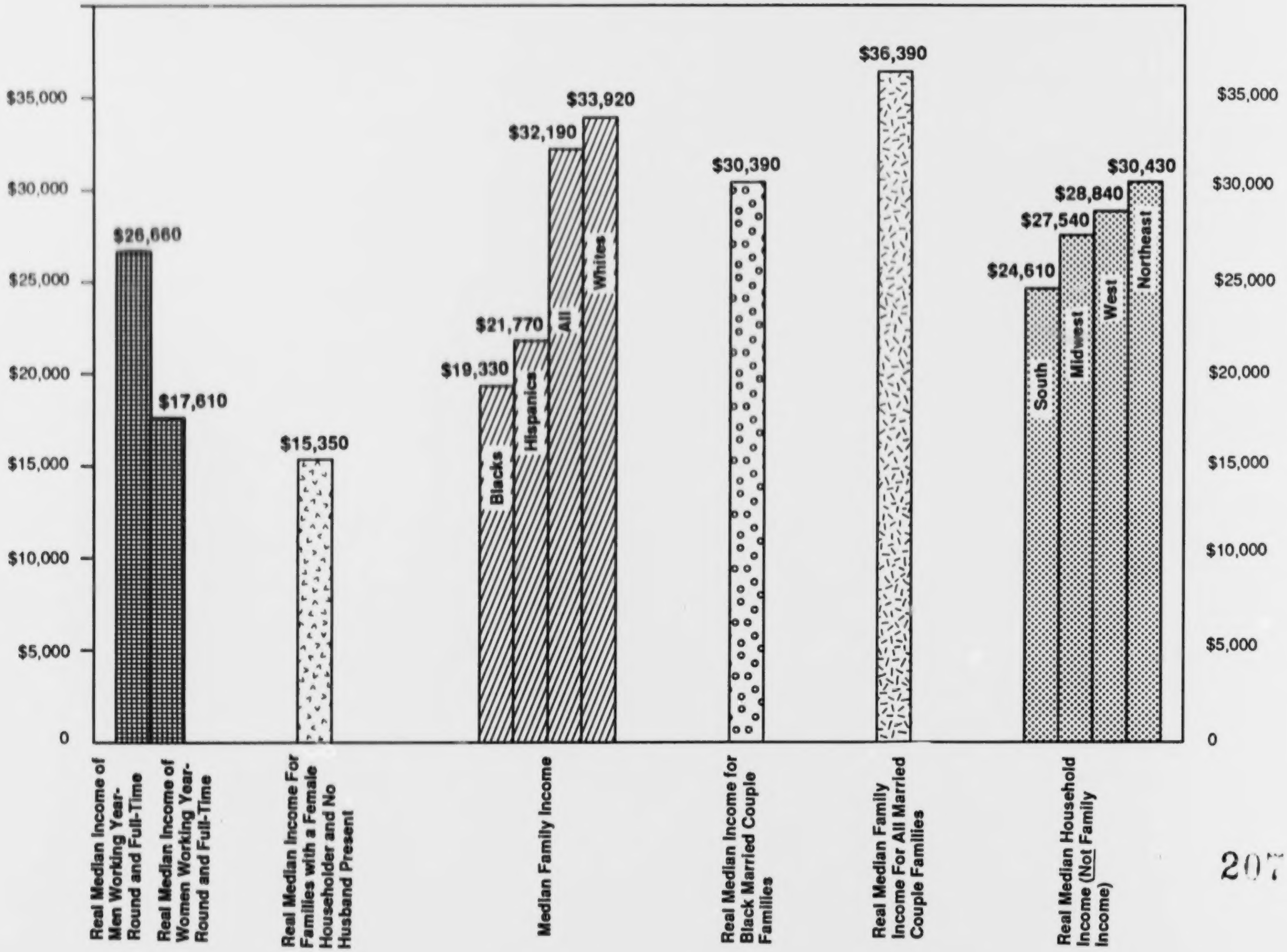
MEDIAN INCOME FIGURES FOR FAMILIES AND OTHERS, 1988



World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Bureau of the Census Release CB89-166, October 18, 1989.

A Proposed System of Democracy Worth Our Attention

THE VERMONT PAPERS

Recreating Democracy on a Human Scale

This book is dedicated to the memory of Ethan Allen and all those hardscrabble Vermonters who, in his tradition, and through their cussedness and liberal vision, have worked to preserve real democracy in Vermont for over two hundred years.

All of the text below is reprinted, with permission, from the dust jacket of the title above, 1989. ISBN 0-930031-19-9 Published by Chelsea Green Publishing Co., Chelsea VT 05038. $18.95.

The Vermont Papers proposes a radical change in our government. The authors are passionate advocates for such basic American values as self-reliance, tolerance, community, diversity, and liberty. Their subject is the plight of democracy in America.

Bypassed by the industrial revolution, Vermont is poised to leap into the 21st century. With its tradition of strong, local town government buttressed by the growth of information technology, Vermont is ready to make a breakthrough toward a postmodern, human-scale democracy. Ready—but not yet free to make the leap.

Over the past generation the state government of Vermont has steadily wrested power from the people of its 246 towns. Such basic concerns of a community as the education of its children, the well-being of its poor, and the uses of its land are now in the hands of distant bureaucrats. The authors declare this trend is both outmoded and contrary to the spirit of democracy.

Bryan and McClaughry propose a system of government through bioregionally based shires—clusters of towns—that will become new, vital little republics. Power will devolve from the state to the shires, with each shire small enough to be known, governed, and loved by each one of its citizens. The state's responsibilities will focus, instead, on such issues as air and water pollution, civil rights and liberties, and relations with other states and nations.

The authors give detailed, specific recommendations. They show clearly how the new democracy will work. As a federation of democratic shires, Vermont will become the little state that could—a beacon to the entire nation as it enters the 21st century.

Frank Bryan teaches political science at the University of Vermont, where he is associate professor. Bryan grew up in Newbury, Vermont. He is an articulate and nationally known advocate of town meeting and local democracy. Bryan is the author and co-author of several books, including *Yankee Politics in Rural Vermont* and *Real Vermonters Don't Milk Goats*. The author lives with his family in Starksboro, Vermont.

John McClaughry, for the past twenty-two years the town moderator of Kirby, Vermont, is president of the Institute for Liberty and Community, which he describes as a "one horse public policy think tank." He has served on four national commissions, under presidents Nixon, Carter, and Reagan, and in 1981–82 was senior policy advisor in the White House Office of Policy Development. He served in the Vermont House of Representatives from 1969 to 1972 and is currently in his first term as a state senator. His many articles and reviews have appeared in *The New York Times, Washington Times, Wall Street Journal, Harvard Review, National Review*, and a variety of other national media.

The *Vermont Papers* are America's papers at a critical time in our history. The book is a brilliant reconsideration of democracy.

John Naisbitt, author of *Megatrends*

In presenting their dream for the rebirth of democracy in Vermont, the authors present a dream for the entire nation. This thoughtful and challenging book ought to be read by all those who have a stake in our government, that is the citizens—all the citizens of this country.

Mark O. Hatfield, United States Senator
and former Governor of Oregon

This is a book with a rare and poignant feel for locality that nevertheless speaks eloquently to the larger dilemmas of democracy in a mass society. Bryan and McClaughry play Aristotle to the great American polis of Vermont, charting its rare democratic virtues, surveying its institutions, and drawing from it lessons for the rebuilding of democracy in both Vermont and America—lessons that have a powerful modern resonance.

Benjamin Barber, Walt Whitman Professor
of Political Science at Rutgers University,
and author of *Strong Democracy* and
The Conquest of Politics

Clearly we need radical new ideas if we are going to retain in Vermont the spirit of democracy and citizen participation that many of us treasure. The authors of *The Vermont Papers* have provided some valuable ideas in stimulating this discussion. I highly recommend this book.

Bernard Sanders, Mayor of Burlington, Vermont

I would like to make this book required reading by Vermonters—not because I agree with its solutions, but because the authors identify the really serious problems of governance of our state.

Philip H. Hoff, former Governor of Vermont

U.S. HISPANIC POPULATION SURPASSES 20 MILLION MARK; GROWS BY 39 PERCENT, CENSUS BUREAU REPORTS.

The nation's Hispanic population, which totaled 20.1 million in March 1989, has been growing about five times as fast as the rate of the non-Hispanic population since 1980, according to a survey released today by the Commerce Department's Census Bureau.

Since 1980, the Hispanic population has grown by 39 percent. Immigration was a major factor in the growths accounting for about half of the overall gain. In 2989, Hispanics represented 8.2 percent of the total U.S. population.

The Mexican original population was the largest among the Hispanic subgroups, numbering 12.6 million according to the survey. Other totals were Central and South American, 2.5 million; Puerto Rican, 2.3 million; Cuban, 1.1 million; and other Hispanic, 1.6 million. (Other Hispanics include persons from Spain and those describing themselves as "Hispanic", "Spanish", or "Latino".)

Since 1982, the Central and South American population has grown by 67 percent. Other growth rates were 30 percent for Mexicans, 14 percent for Puerto Ricans, and 12 percent for Cubans. The group comprising other Hispanics rose by 31 percent. The apparent difference between the increase for other Hispanics and Mexicans was not statistically significant, nor was the difference between Puerto Ricans and Cubans.

Three states had about two-thirds of U.S. Hispanics. They were California, with 34 percent; Texas, with 21 percent; and New York, with 10 Percent.

Persons of Mexican origin were primarily concentrated in California and Texas; Cubans in Florida; Central and South Americans in California and New York; and Puerto Ricans in New York.

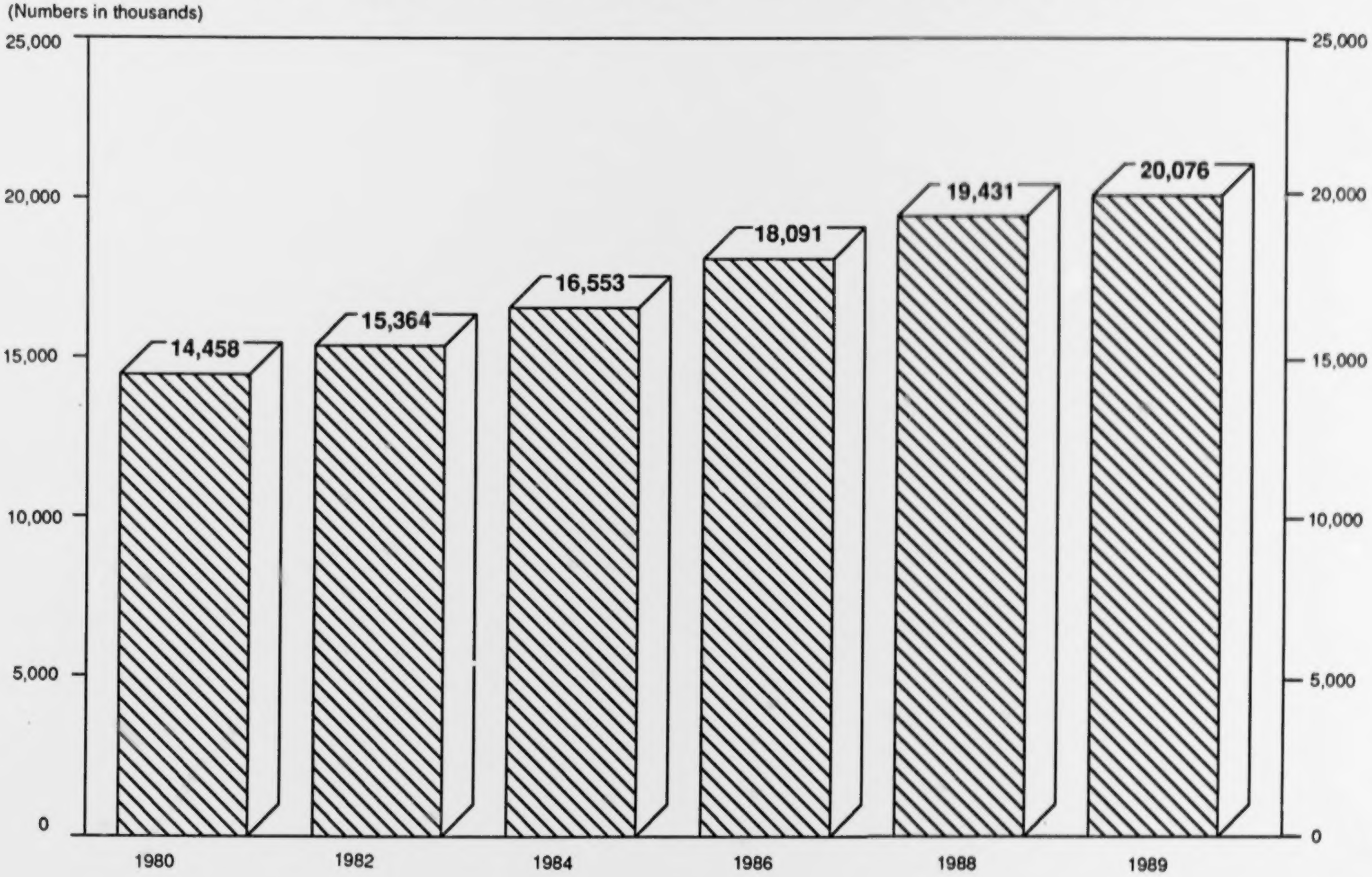
As in all surveys, the data are subject to sampling variability and other sources of error.

The attached charts and table show population information for persons of Hispanic origin. A report showing social and economic characteristics of the Hispanic population will be issued later in the year.

Source: Bureau of the Census. Release
CB89-158, October 12, 1989.

continued →

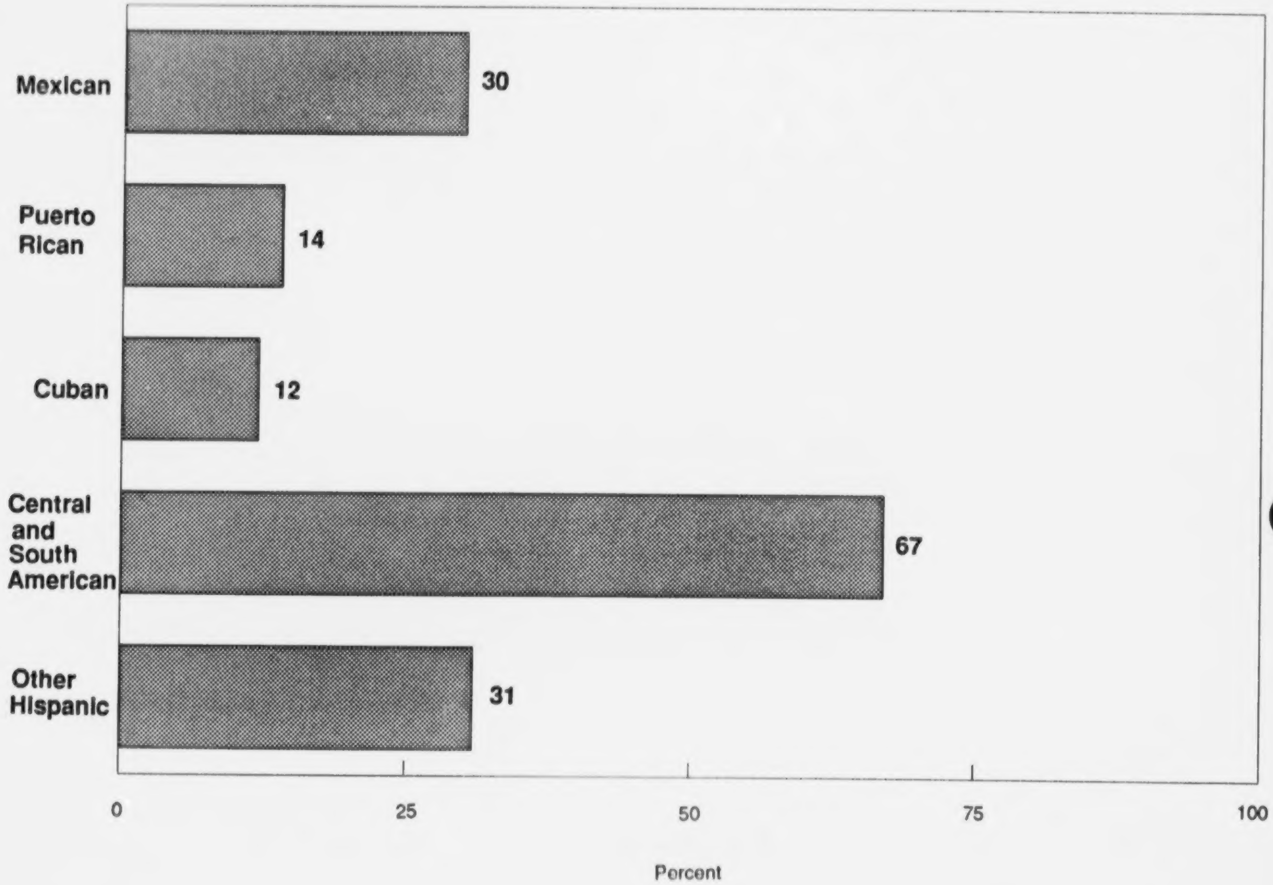
NUMBER OF HISPANIC ORIGIN PERSONS IN THE U.S.: APRIL 1980 AND MARCH 1982 TO MARCH 1989



Source: Bureau of the Census. Release CB89-158, October 12, 1989.

continued

PERCENT CHANGE IN THE U.S. HISPANIC ORIGIN POPULATION BY TYPE: MARCH 1982 TO 1989



Source: Bureau of the Census. Release
CB89-158, October 12, 1989.

continued →

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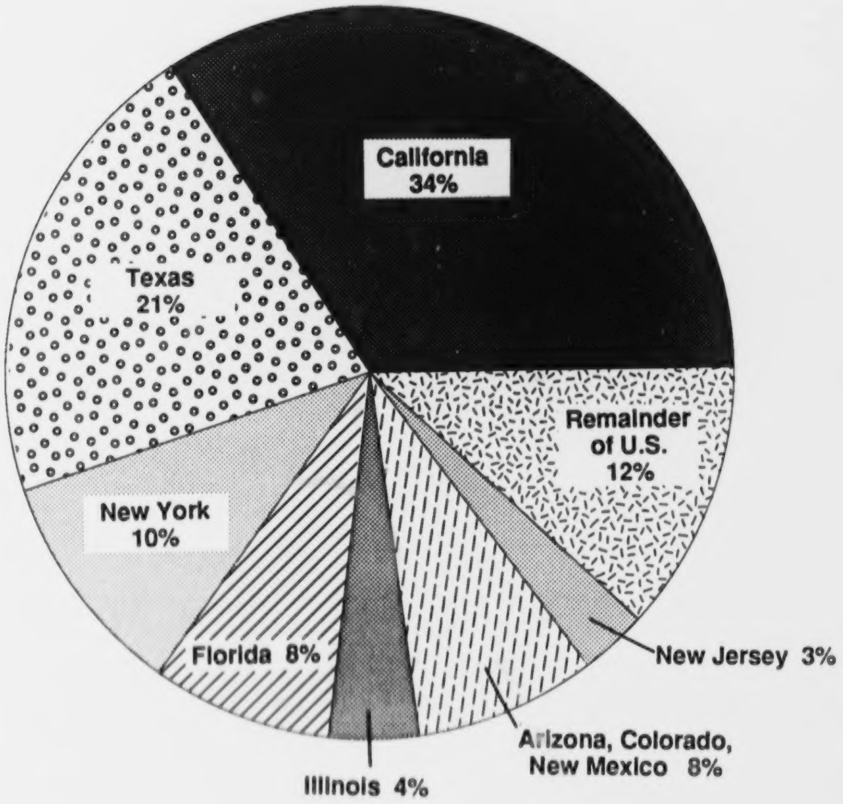
GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF THE HISPANIC ORIGIN POPULATION: MARCH 1989



Source: Bureau of the Census. Release CB89-158, October 12, 1989.

continued

Table A. CHANGE IN THE TOTAL AND HISPANIC ORIGIN POPULATIONS: APRIL 1980 TO MARCH 1989

(For the United States. Numbers in thousands)

Origin	March 1989 Civilian noninstitutional population)	1980 Census[1]		Percent change 1980-89 (Civilian noninstitutional population)
		Civilian noninstitutional population	Resident population	
Total population	243,685	222,461	226,546	9.5
Hispanic origin	20,076	14,458	14,609	38.9
Not of Hispanic origin	223,609	208,003	211,937	7.5
Hispanic population as a percent of total population	8.2	6.5	6.4	n.a.

n.a. not applicable

[1] Data as of April 1, 1980

Table B. CHANGE IN THE HISPANIC ORIGIN POPULATION, BY TYPE OF ORIGIN: MARCH 1982 TO MARCH 1989

(Data are for the civilian noninstitutional population of the United States. Numbers in thousands)

Origin	March 1989	March 1982	Percent change, 1982 to 1989
Total Hispanic population	20,076	15,364	30.7
Mexican origin	12,567	9,642	30.3
Puerto Rican origin	2,328	2,051	13.5
Cuban origin	1,068	950	12.4
Central and South American origin	2,545	1,523	67.1
Other Hispanic origin	1,567	1,198	30.8

Source: Bureau of the Census. Release CB89-158, October 12,1989.

WORLDQUIZ

(ANSWERS are on Page 34)

1.2.3. Name three of the six states which border Iowa: ______________________________

4.5.6 Defeated U.S. Presidential candidate (major party) in 1980 ____________________, in 1984 ____________________, in 1988 ______________.

7. Which country is on East Germany's eastern border? ____________________________

8. What do Estonia, Armenia, and Azerbaijan have in common? __________________________

9. The State which has over 10% of the U.S. population: __________

In which country would you find each of the following?

10. Vladivostok ________________
11. Kabul ________________
12.. The Sandanistas ________________
13. The Kremlin ________________
14. Jerusalem ________________
15. The Sydney Opera House ________________
16. Apartheid ________________
17. Tallinn ________________
18. Home of the I.R.A. ________________
19. The Contras ________________
20. Lech Walesa ________________
21. Ho Chi Minh City ________________
22. Egon Krenz ________________
23. Mecca ________________
24. Tiananmen Square ________________

25. How many times larger than one million is one billion? ____________________

26.27.28. Name three of the five countries which border Hungary ______________________________________ ______________________________________

29. Which of the following is not a member of the United Nations? (a) Republic of China (b) Republic of Korea (c) Switzerland (d) Vatican City State (e) all of these __________

What is the name of the body of water between

30. Texas and Florida ________________
31. Libya and Greece ________________
32. England and France ________________
33. Spain and Morocco ________________
34. Australia and New Zealand ________________
35. Bombay and Oman ________________

36. This past fall (before East Germans could exit directly to West Germany), when East Germams exited to Hungary via Czechoslovakia, which country did they then pass through to reach West Germany? ____________________

37. A city's infrastructure involves (a) tunnels, bridges, and highways (b) water supply (c) fuel supply (d) sanitation & health system (e) all of these

In which country would you find each of these major cities?

38. Copenhagen ________________
39. Milan ________________
40. Kiev ________________
41. Gdansk ________________
42. Rio de Janeiro ________________
43. Lagos ________________
44. Ottawa ________________
45. Johannesburg ________________

True or False: (46-50)

46. The value of U.S. merchandise imports currently exceeds the value of its exports ________

47. The value of U.S. agricultural exports currently exceeds the value of its imports ________

48. The Federal Government is currently spending about $100 billion a year more than it takes in. ________

49. The debt of the Federal Government is more than $1 trillion ________

50. Each year, the U.S. currently imports over one third of oil it uses ________

51. In Iran, the majority of that country's 54 million people belongs to the ________________ branch of Islam.

continued ⟶

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WORLDQUIZ continued

52. The other major Muslim branch is the ____________________

53. Of all the primary energy produced in the world today (each year, say), how much is produced by U.S. (a) 21% (b) 5% (c) 54% (d) 36%

54. Overall, there is more food being produced in the world today. On a per capita basis, compared with ten years ago, there is: (a) more (b) less (c) about the same

55. Approximately how many people live in the U.S.? (a) 250 million (b) 87 million (c) 37 million (d) 145 million (e) 486 million

56.57. Which are the two most populous countries of Latin America? ____________________

58. The U.S. is the 4th most populous country in the world. Approximately what percent of the world's population does it have? __________

59.60.61. Which three countries have populations larger than the U.S.? ____________________

62. The 1989 World Series was delayed because of an earthquake in __________

63.64.65.66.67. Name five of the nine states which have over 50% of the U.S. population ____________________

Place the appropriate letter from the right-hand column on the appropriate blank line in the left-hand column.

68. _____ Panama strong man

69. _____ Former U.S. President who met with leaders of China in Fall of 1989

70. _____ Speaker of the U.S. House of Representatives

71. _____ Prime Minister of United Kingdom

72. _____ Leader of Communist Party in East Germany

(a) Egon Krenz
(b) Dwight Eisenhower
(c) Jimmy Carter
(d) Margaret Thatcher
(e) Gerald Ford
(f) Thomas Foley
(g) Manuel Noriega
(h) Richard Nixon

73. Is Havana southeast or southwest of Miami? ______

True-False: (74-79)

74. On the Richter Scale, an earthquake that measures 7.0 is ten times as severe as one measuring 6.0. ____

75. There is no upper limit on the Richter Scale _______

76. China is larger in area than the U.S. (including Alaska): _________

77. Alaska is twice the size of Texas: _______

78. One of every six Americans lives in the Boston-Washington corridor: _______

79. The Kremlin is a building: _______

What direction is:

80. Honolulu from San Francisco? __________

81. Anchorage from Seattle? __________

82. What percent of the world's Gross National Product does the U.S. produce? Approximately (a) 10% (b) 25% (c) 5% (d) 40%

83. Which country is the U.S.'s largest total trade (exports plus imports) partner? __________

84. Is the population in America's Sunshine Belt (a) going up (b) going down (c) staying about the same? ______

85. In September 1989, Hurricane Hugo caused the most property damage in which state? ______

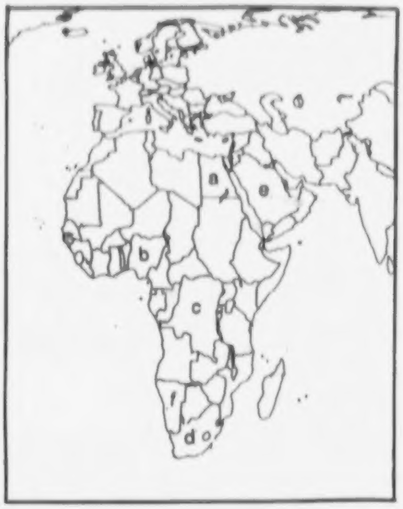
86.87.88. Yellowstone National Park lies within three states. They are: ____________________

89. The country "afficionados" of the deceased Ferdinand Marcos want him buried in? __________

90.91.92.93.94. Name the five U.S. States washed by the Gulf of Mexico____________________

Identify

95. (a) __________
96. (b) __________
97. (c) __________
98. (d) __________
99. (e) __________
100. (f) __________



WORST ACCIDENT IN U.S.HISTORY?

If cigarettes were invented today, and companies tried to market them, Federal and State agencies responsible for consumer and safety would declare them illegal and prohibit their manufacture and distributions.

The following is reprinted from Congressional Research Service, The Library of Congress, CRS Review, March 1989. P. 19.

An accident that took place many years ago in this country is killing people today—according to Surgeon General C. Everett Koop, at a rate of more than 1,000 per day. The accident is that cigarette smoking became prevalent in this country before its health hazards were recognized.

The Surgeon General and others call it "an historical accident." Their point is that if cigarettes were invented today, and companies tried to market them, Federal and State agencies responsible for consumer and safety would declare them illegal and prohibit their manufacture and distribution. Yet cigarettes are legal, and banning their sale and use now is thought likely to yield results comparable to prohibition. Therein lies a dilemma that confronts the Congress.

This year marks the twenty-fifth anniversary of the 1964 Surgeon General's Report that identified cigarette smoking as the single most important source of premature mortality among Americans. Over the last quarter of a century, it has become increasingly clear that cigarettes (and other tobacco products) exact a high toll from society. Besides a sobering number of premature deaths, now estimated at 390,000 per year by the Surgeon General, there are other costs as well. A 1985 estimate by the Office of Technology Assessment, for example, put the total annual cost for smoking-related health care and lost productivity at $65 billion. (Both figures are disputed by industry analysts.)

The other side of the ledger is not devoid of some impressive figures. The $35 billion cigarette market furnishes direct employment to more than 400,000 workers in sectors including tobacco farming, manufacturing, and wholesale and retail trade. Tens of millions of Americans enjoy smoking cigarettes. Federal, State, and local tobacco tax revenues for FY88 exceeded $9.9 billion. Cigarettes are arguably the country's most heavily advertised and promoted consumer product, with spending estimated as high as $2.8 billion a year.

Such figures represent some of the more conventional aggregate cost and benefit data that help frame the health policy debate over the Federal Government's role concerning tobacco. But other considerations—some that do not lend themselves to statistical analysis—are crucial. The issue of whether to prohibit all cigarette advertising is an example.

The Congress decided nearly 20 years ago to ban cigarette ads from radio and television. This year, prompted by growing concerns about smoking and health, it is anticipated that the 101st Congress will consider legislation to ban all such ads as well as other promotional activities, as did the 100th Congress. The advertising industry, major advertisers, media interests, and others will fight the proposed ban with what has thus far proved to be a powerful argument: advertisers have a constitutional right to advertise lawful products, provided they do so in a truthful manner. The First Amendment does not accord commercial speech, such as advertising, as high a degree of protection as it does political or artistic expression, but it is greatly valued in this society.

Thus, the dilemma occurs. What weight, if any, is to be given to the claim that cigarettes are a legal product today only because of "an historical accident?" Does the advertising of cigarettes constitute a unique situation wherein the government's responsibility to protect the health and welfare of the Nation's citizenry is paramount? And would a total ban on cigarette advertising have a significant impact on smoking?

Bruce K. Mulock,
business and government
relations specialist,
CRS Economics Division

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ANSWERS TO WORLDQUIZ

1..2.3.NE,SD,MN,WI,IL,MO 4.Carter 5.Mondale 6.Dukakis 7.Poland 8.They are all republics of USSR 9.CA 10.USSR 11.Afghanistan 12.Nicaragua 13.USSR 14.Israel 15.Australia 16.South Africa 17.USSR (Estonia) 18.Ireland 19.Nicaragua 20.Poland 21.Vietnam 22.East Germany (GDR) 23.Saudi Arabia 24.China (PRC) 25. 1,000 26.27.28.Austria, Czechoslovakia, USSR, Romania, Yugoslavia 29.(e) 30.Gulf of Mexico 31.Mediterranean Sea 32.English Channel 33.Strait of Gibraltar 34.Tasman Sea 35.Arabian Sea 36.Austria 37.(e) 38.Denmark 39.Italy 40.USSR 41.Poland 42.Brazil 43.Nigeria 44.Canada 45.(Republic of) South Africa 46.True 47.True 48.True 49.True 50.True 51.Shiite or Shia 52.Sunni 53.(a) 54.(b) 55.(a) 56.57.Brazil, Mexico 58. 4 or 5% 59.60.61.China, India, USSR 62..CA, or San Francisco, or Oakland, or San Jose 63.64.65.66.67.CA,NY,TX,FL,PA,IL,OH,MI,NJ 68.(g) 69.(h) 70.(f) 71.(d) 72.(a) 74.True 73.Southwest 75.True 76.True 77.True 78.True 79.False 80.Southwest 81.Northwest 82.(b) 83.Canada 84.(a) 85.SC 86.87.88.WY,ID,MT 89.The Philippines 90.91.92.93.94.TX,LA,MS,AL,FL 95.Egypt 96.Nigeria 97.Zaire 98.South Africa 99.Saudi Arabia 100.Namibia

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STUDENT RIGHTS

Hazelwood

As of July 1, 1989 students in Iowa are protected from the impact of the January 1988 *Hazelwood* Supreme Court decision. Iowa became the first state to draft and pass new legislation protecting student free expression rights in the wake of *Hazelwood.*

California already had a student free expression statute, and Massachusetts made its optional statute mandatory in July last year. Similar legislation in Kansas only passed one house of the legislature–not both–as implied in the last *Bill of Rights Network*, and remains in committee in the state Senate.
Ohio has just introduced a similar bill. Legislation to protect student expression was defeated in Nevada and Rhode Island.

A Tennessee high school student in Erwin, Tennessee was barred from a school election for insulting the assistant principal in a speech. The 6th US Court of Appeals cited *Hazelwood* and claimed that "civility is a legitimate pedagogical concern" in upholding by 2-1 the action by the school officials.

Dress Code

School officials in Green Bay Washington Middle School backed down after 150 students protested the banning of Guns 'n' Roses and Black Sabbath rock group T shirts. When the school principal was informed of an earlier 7th Circuit Court of Appeals ruling that schools could only make restrictions on school dress on health grounds and to prevent disruption, he rescinded the ban.

Biology

Maggie McCool, a vegetarian high school biology student in Trenton, New Jersey, won her legal battle to refuse to dissect worms, frogs, crayfish, perch and a fetal pig on religious grounds. She brought the case after receiving a failing grade for 10th grade biology.

Curfews

In May a federal district judge in Washington threw out a DC city council ordinance that would have made it illegal for juveniles under the age of 18 to be in public areas between 11pm-6am during the week and midnight to 6am on weekends. He claimed the ordinance violated their 1st and 5th Amendment rights.

But in August the Iowa Supreme Court by a 5-4 vote upheld a 10pm curfew affecting everyone under the age of 18 in the central Iowa town of Panora. A case had been brought by a 15 year old who was given a ticket for skateboarding in a Panora parking lot at 10:35 p.m.

Search and Seizure

In late August a federal court in Texas struck down a school district policy requiring students in grades 6-12 who wanted to be involved in extracurricular activities to submit to urinalysis drug testing. The case was brought in November 1988 by a senior at East Chambers High School in Winnie, Texas who had been barred from participating in Future Farmers of America because he refused to take a drug test. The judge ruled that there was no evidence that drug and alcohol abuse constituted a major problem at the school and that the drug testing program violated students' 4th Amendment rights.

A US district court in Tampa, Florida is hearing a case which challenges the constitutionality of the Hardee County school board policy which allows students to be strip-searched. The case was brought after the principal strip-searched first the only two black students in the junior high school class for emotionally and handicapped students and then the only two Hispanic students after a ring belonging to a teacher's aide was reported missing. The ring was found on top of a refrigerator.

Source: Massachusetts Civil Liberties Union Foundation. Bill of Rights Network, Autumn 1989.

VOLUME XIII CUMULATIVE INDEX *(For the five issues September 1989- January 1990.)*

Monthly abbreviations are: S, O, N, D, Ja, F, Mr, Ap, My, Je. A reference of S5 means September issue, page 5. PROFILES pages are indexed, and so, also are the individual items in them. A PROFILES (P) item on drug use in the November issue, page 18 would be indexed DRUGS: Use (P), N18, OPINION pages (O) are indexed and so are the items in them.

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December	**U.S. and World Population**	**May**	**Social Programs in the Federal Budget**
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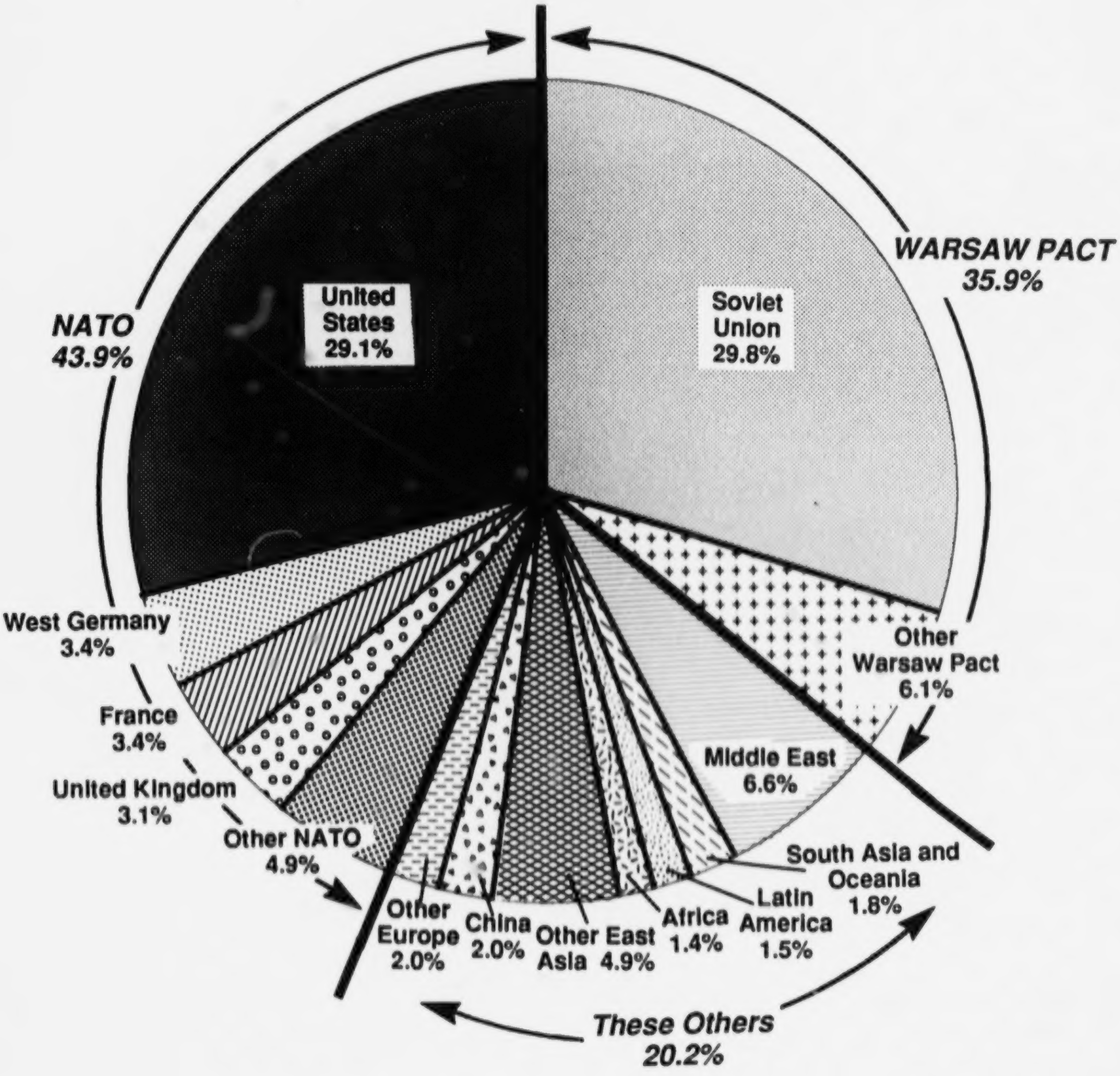
THE WORLD'S MILITARY SPENDERS, 1987

U.S. and USSR Each Spend Almost 30% of World's Total of Military Expenditures



World Eagle chart based on data from United States Arms Control and Disarmament Agency. World Military Expenditures and Arms Transfers 1988. Table I, pp. 27-68.

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DARING TO HOPE THAT DE-ESCALATION WILL CONTINUE LONG-TERM: TWO EXPRESSIONS

Each of the following pieces has been excerpted from SIPRI Yearbook 1989 World Armaments and Disarmament. SIPRI (Stockholm International Peace Research Institute). Oxford University Press 1989.

From the foreword by Dr. Walther Stützle

As opposed to all his predecessors since the end of World War II, President George Bush is neither confronted with a war-prone crisis (as was Harry S. Truman in the Berlin Crisis of 1948-49, and John F. Kennedy in the Berlin Crisis of 1958-62 and in the Cuba Crisis of 1962), nor does he find US armed forces involved in the conduct of a war (as was the case for Dwight D. Eisenhower with the Korean War of 1950-53, and for Lyndon B. Johnson and Richard S. Nixon with the Viet Nam war until 1973), nor is President Bush exposed to both proxy conflicts and an insensitive Soviet missile policy (as was Gerald R. Ford in the Angola conflict of 1975-76 and Jimmy E. Carter and Ronald W. Reagan with the Afghanistan confict of 1979-80, and as both presidents experienced with the Brezhnev-Gromyko missile policy, for which the SS-20 emerged as the key symbol). Thus history presents the United States and the Soviet Union with a unique opportunity to turn trends into events--which is no small progress, given the tremendous amount of destructive potential available to mankind.

Dr. Walther Stützle (Federal Republic of Germany) is the Director of SIPRI. In 1983-86 he was International Correspondent for the Stuttgarter Zeitung, and in 1976-82 Head of the Planning Staff and Undersecretary for Defence Planning and Policy for the FRG Ministry of Defence. He is the author of Adenauer and Kennedy in der Berlin Krise 1961/62 (1973) and Politik und Krafteverhaltnis (1983), and a co-editor of the SIPRI volume The ABM Treaty: To Defend or Not to Defend? (1987).

Conclusion in a chapter titled "World Military Expenditure" by Dr. Saadat Deger.

Both military expenditure, for the major powers, and militarization, in the Third World, are on the decline. Structural reasons related to technological and economic factors are as important as those related to political dynamics. Disarmament, deficits, dollars, development and debt all interrelate with politics, personalities, passion and policy to produce a complex set of causes and effects. Whether these features of non-increasing defence spending, arms control and possible disarmament will be long-term or not is difficult to predict. Nevertheless, the constraints imposed by technology and economics are strong enough to make ever increasing military expenditure a very difficult proposition indeed. Conflicts, in their many forms, remain; possibly among allies both in the West and in the East, and certainly in the Third World. However, there is some hope that both political and structural factors have coalesced at the same moment to continue the impetus towards controlling the military expenditure process.

Dr. Saadet Deger (Turkey) is Researcher and Leader of the SIPRI world military expenditure project. She is a former Fellow of Birkbeck College, University of London (1977-87) and Chairman of the Political Economy of Defence and Development Study Group of the Developing Studies Association, UK. She is a member of the UN Working Group of Experts for the UN Centre for Disarmament Research, Africa. She is author of Military Expenditure in Third World Countries: The Economic Effects (1986) and co-editor of Defence, Security and Development (1987).

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PROPOSALS BY PRESIDENT BUSH AT THE MALTA SUMMIT

The following article, courtesy The Boston Globe, ran in the Globe, Sunday, December 3, 1989. P. 31. Author: Adam Pertman, Globe Staff; contribution by Paul Quinn-Judge, Globe reporter.

VALLETTA, Malta – President Bush offered a series of proposals yesterday that appeared designed to accommodate Soviet concerns and assure a successful summit.

Even the demands that Bush reportedly made of President Mikhail S. Gorbachev, such as the resolution of human-rights cases and publication of military information, were ones that the Kremlin chief is unlikely to find daunting.

Soviet officials did not publicly react to the proposals or disclose any that Gorbachev may have made.

An American official outlined Bush's suggestions to reporters last night. He did not elaborate on them, give any context or say whether the list was complete.

Among the major ideas Bush presented were:

■ Concluding talks on a strategic-arms reduction treaty, or START – something Moscow has been advocating – as well as two other nuclear pacts so that all three can be signed by Bush and Gorbachev at their next summit. The official said the summit will be held late next June in the United States.

■ Ending US production of a new generation of chemical arms, called binary. This is a step that Bush has balked at in the past, even when he proposed this year that all other chemical weapons be eliminated.

■ Holding another summit in Vienna by the end of 1990 at which the two presidents would sign a treaty dramatically cutting US and Soviet conventional forces in Europe.

■ Beginning negotiations immediately on granting most-favored-nation trade status to the Soviet Union, after the communist nation passes legislation easing immigration laws. That relaxation is almost certain to happen by early next year, and US officials said they wanted the subsequent trade accord to be ready at the June summit.

Implicit in that idea is that the administration will lift major trade-restriction legislation, called the Jackson-Vanick bill, because the favored-nation status cannot be implemented while it is still in force.

■ Promising American support after next year for Soviet observer status in a major international economic organization, the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade. And saying that the administration will explore lifting other export and import restrictions on Moscow after Jackson-Vanick is lifted.

■ Providing technical help to Moscow on economic restructuring and discussing a treaty by which to increase US investment in the Soviet Union.

Bush reportedly gave Gorbachev examples of the types of changes and technical assistance that are possible. Those included help in agriculture, establishing a Soviet stock exchange and small business development.

The economic steps suggested by Bush are certain to be greeted warmly by Gorbachev, who needs American assistance not only because his economy is in such bad shape, but also because he needs evidence to show internal critics that his new policies are bearing fruit.

Bush seemed to ask little in return for the inducements he offered. For example, the only economic concession the American official listed last night was that the Kremlin move toward market pricing of wholesale goods. That may irritate some Soviet officials, who have bristled in the past when Washington told it what to do, but the demand itself is not something that departs dramatically from Gorbachev's own plans.

In a similar vein, two other suggestions by Bush may sound more demanding than they probably are, allowing him to appear tough without imposing any potential deal-stoppers.

First, the president urged Soviet leaders to resolve all outstanding human-rights cases in their country, something Gorbachev is moving to do in any case. Bush specifically asked that all cases involving divided families be settled, and he gave a list of Soviet citizens who reportedly want to emigrate but have been denied permission.

In addition, Bush said Moscow should publish information on its military programs, including force posture, budget and arms production. The Foreign Ministry already has pushed for liberalization in the defense establishment, so that is not a demand likely to cause great irritation.

Among the other items on Bush's agenda reportedly were:

■ Scheduling a meeting between Secretary of State James A. Baker 3d and Soviet Foreign Minister Eduard Shevardnadze for late January, at which the two men could discuss the progress of various items.

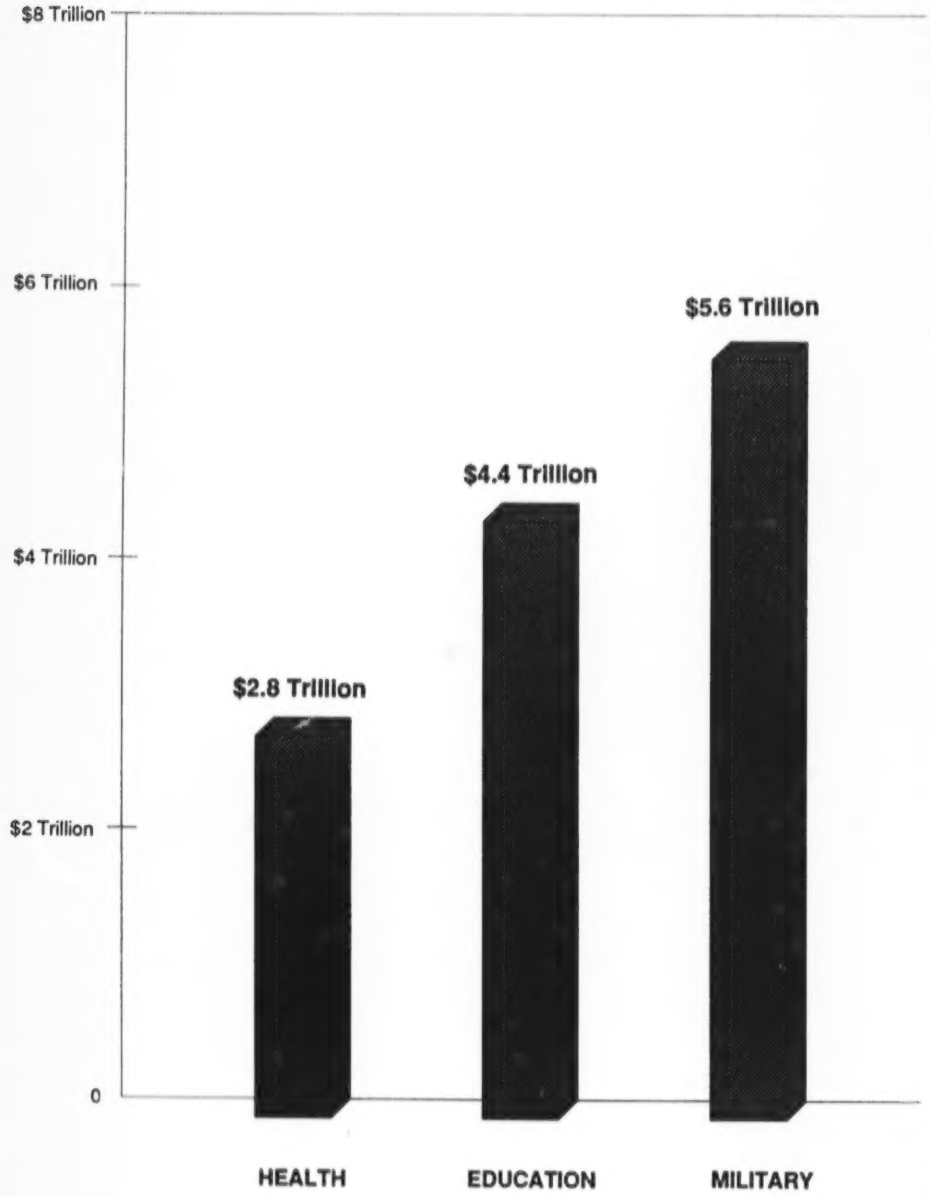
■ Holding a conference in Washington next fall to negotiate a framework for a treaty on global warming. He said it should occur after United Nations working groups, currently discussing the issue, present their final report.

■ Promoting a US-Soviet call for the Olympics to be held in Berlin in the year 2004. Ronald Reagan made the same suggestion when he was president, without suggesting a date.

■ Conducting an exchange of 1,000 Soviet and American students beginning in the 1991 academic year. Officials implied that the program would be yearly but did not say what grade levels would be involved. ◆

U.S. EXPENDITURES FOR HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND MILITARY: 1960-1987

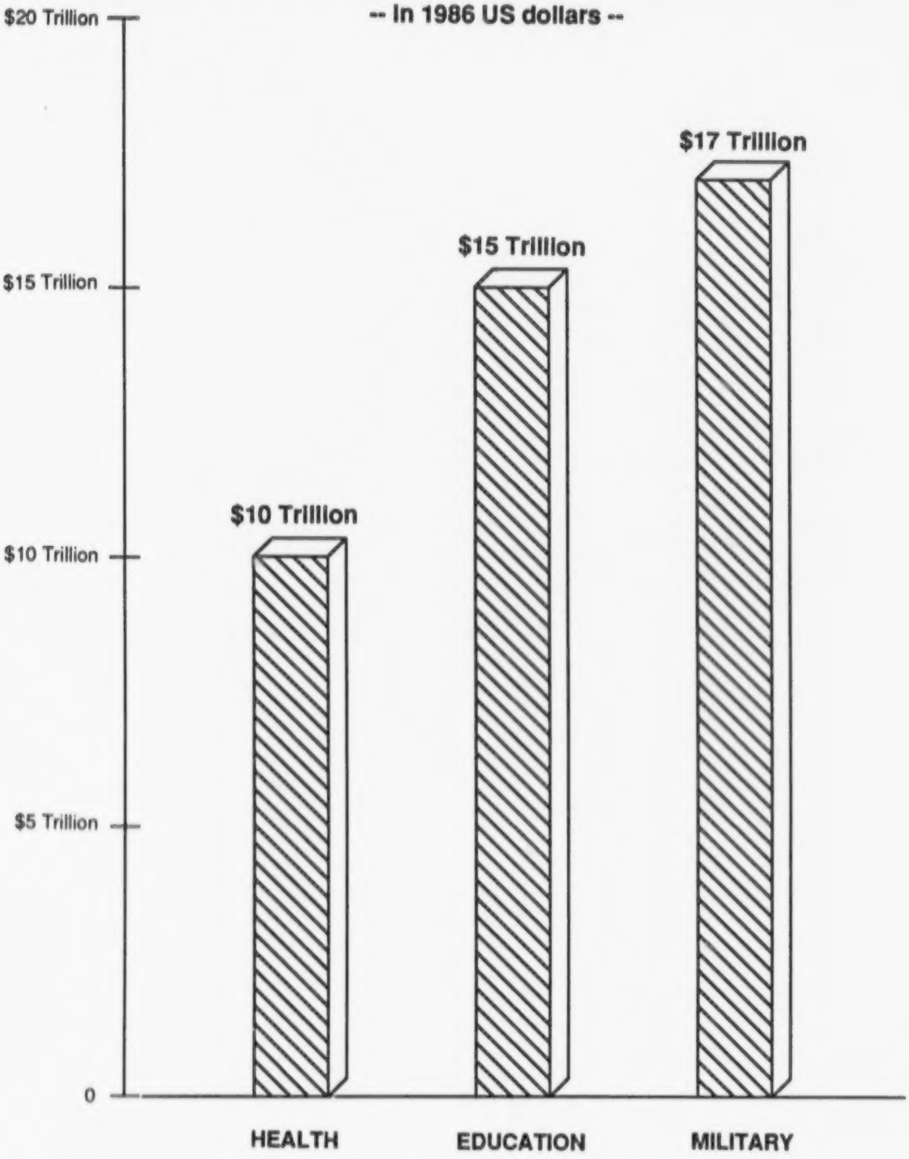
-- Federal, State, and Local Governments --



World Eagle chart. Data from Ruth Leger Sivard's World Military and Social Expenditures 1989 (13th edition). P.45.

continued

GLOBAL EXPENDITURES BY GOVERNMENTS FOR HEALTH, EDUCATION, MILITARY: 1960-1987



The financial costs are reasonably clear: in the span of three decades, expenditures on an unprecedented global arms race have consumed over $17 trillion ($17,000,000,000,000) of the world's resources, valued in 1986 US dollars. These expenditures have grown faster than the world's economic product per capita, denying to a rapidly growing population the earned benefits of an expanding economy.

World Eagle chart. Data and text from Ruth Leger Sivard's World Military and Social Expenditures 1989 (13th edition). Pp. 6 and 7.

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JOINTLY EDITED SOVIET-AMERICAN JOURNAL PRESENTS STUDIES ON ARMS CONTROL, GLOBAL SECURITY ISSUES

The following is reprinted from the University of California UC Clip Sheet, August 29, 1989.

SANTA CRUZ—"Arms control is a great idea, but how do we make sure they don't cheat?"

That refrain is a familiar argument against any mutual cutback in the nuclear weapons that, depending on your point of view, protect or threaten earth. Trust and glasnost only go so far; both sides will not rest easily until every reduction in arms is at least partly verifiable.

That's where Science and Global Security, a new quarterly journal, comes in.

Directed by a joint board of editors from the United States and the Soviet Union, the journal made its debut July 23 as a scientific forum for detailed studies on many aspects of arms control, environmental and energy policy, and other issues of global security.

Future issues will feature articles by scientists from both Western and Communist countries on a wide range of sensitive topics, including some that have not yet been studied formally by the governments involved.

"We hope to suggest new policy initiatives," says Harold Feiveson, a senior research scientist at Princeton University and editor of the journal. "Also, we want to form a body of analysis with enough technical detail so that scientists and policy-makers can draw on it in the future and not have to start from scratch."

Joel Primack, a professor of physics at the University of California, Santa Cruz, and Daniel Hirsch, director of the Stevenson Program on Nuclear Policy at UCSC, contributed to the first issue of Science and Global Security and have been heavily involved with its main subject: space nuclear power. Former UCSC graduate student Phil Pinto, now at the Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics, also coauthored one article.

Articles to appear in future issues include a highly technical description of how to detect concealed material for nuclear weapons, a discussion of methods to verify the brightness of lasers that could be used as anti-satellite weapons, and dialogues relating to possible future U.S.-Soviet cooperation in space.

According to Feiveson, articles on energy policy and goofball environmental issues are also within the scope of the journal, which will encourage unsolicited manuscripts from scientists worldwide.

"I hope this will be the be the beginning of more serious cooperative work between Americans and Soviets on arms control," says UCSC's Hirsch, who chaired a U.S.-Soviet working group on space nuclear power. "Perhaps we can move into an era where arms control is not so much a race to build up weapons as it is a race to eliminate them."

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About the author...
Howard S. Brembeck is the founder and Chairman of the Board of Chore-Time Brock, Inc. (CTB), a midwestern manufacturer of equipment for the production of poultry and livestock and the storage of grain and feeds. CTB is the world's largest manufacturer of its kind, doing business in more than 80 nations.

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Chief Prosecutor for the United States, Nuremberg War Crimes Trials

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Past President of Rotary International

"Brembeck realizes that countries must have the power to defend themselves...he also echoes my view that nuclear weapons have no military application, and should not be included in the military plans of any country. As the book addresses, no nation has the right to instruments of mass destruction, except (in my opinion) for that bare and invulnerable minimum needed to deter attack with such devices alone."

Noel Gayler, Admiral USN (retired), former CIC of U.S. Forces Pacific (COMPAC); former Director, National Security Agency

A Public Service Radio Plea:
CHEMICAL WEAPONS MUST BE BANNED

The following was broadcast on WCRB Boston, July 24, 1989, by Jerome Grossman, President, Council For A Livable World, 20 Park Plaza, Boston MA 02116.

Reacting to the horrors of World War I, the international community foreswore the use of poison gas weapons. This consensus has been seriously eroded, particularly by feeble worldwide reaction against Iraq's hideous deeds. Along with the lives of millions of other people, and birds and animals, your life is in danger.

More and more countries are getting ballistic missiles. These missiles, armed with poison gas, make every nation vulnerable to attack.

Once monopolized by a few "advanced" nations, poison gas has become the poor nation's atomic bomb....a simple and cheap weapon that can kill masses of people. As many as 27 countries may now be developing chemical weapons.

For Americans, the struggle to stop poison gas warfare begins at home. In 1987, the United States renewed production of these deadly weapons after an 18-year moratorium. The Pentagon is making Bigeye bombs and a new rocket system for delivery. These binary chemical weapons form a gas many times more deadly than those used in World War I. It kills by disrupting the nervous system, causing convulsions, uncontrollable vomiting and diarrhea, and finally asphyxia by respiratory paralysis.

During the 1988 election campaign, President Bush promised over and over to clean the planet of chemical weapons. On August 18, Bush told the Republican National Convention, "In foreign affairs....I will ban chemical and biological weapons from the face of the earth." We need to hold him to his promise and, if he delays, to convince Congress to cut off production funds immediately.

The prevention of this horror and the preservation of the earth is everybody's responsibility. ❖

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AN ASSERTION THAT WHILE OTHER ORGANIZATIONS DREAM OF WHAT COULD BE, PUGWASH PLANS FOR IT

The following article by Charles A. Radin is reprinted courtesy of The Boston Globe from that paper's July 29, 1989 edition, page 2. Address of Student Pugwash (USA): 1638 R Street, NW, Washington DC 20036. Phone (202) 544-1784.

So perfectly do they fit their roles, these leaders of the student-Pugwash movement who were in Cambridge for an international conference this week, that they would have seemed to be playing idealized roles if they had not been so real, so reasonable in their attitudes, when they got down to the issues of politics, disarmament and security.

Oleg Vorontsov, 26, is soft-spoken, and on the fast track for advancement as a Soviet peacenik-scientist.

Terry Sabonis-Chafee, 26, is assertive, and feeling her way along a similar track in the United States.

How do up-and-coming Soviet scientists respond to the courage of Andrei Sakharov, the dissident physicist and Nobel laureate, who opened this Pugwash gathering with a scathing review of conditions in his country?

"We will be more outspoken than Sakharov," said Vorontsov, who heads student Pugwash in the Soviet Union. In matter-of-fact tones, he launched into his own perspective of his country's woes.

Where do aspiring US policy analysts with a disarmament bent stand on the nuclear-free world issue?

"I personally would have to say on the issue of total nuclear disarmament that it is not the central question," said Sabonis-Chafee, who just completed a term as leader of student Pugwash in the United States. "Even if the United States and the Soviet Union right now bilaterally disarmed, there are a number of nations – South Africa, Israel, India, China – who would be no more likely to give up their own.

Senior Pugwash is an international group of physicists and other scientists, founded at the height of the Cold War, to urge the end of the nuclear arms race. Student Pugwash was started in 1979 when the aging founders, many of whom arrived at their activism through involvement in development of nuclear weapons technology, realized they needed a successor generation if their movement was to endure.

Student Pugwash has more members from the social sciences than the senior movement, a broader agenda, and leaders with more humbler manners than their mentors.

What the students share with the seniors, in addition to opposing the nuclear arms race, is a concept of government policymaking that places a high value on maintaining communication among nations through individual, elite contacts.

"Foreign policy for the most part, even in democratic nations, is made by a small group of influential people," Sabonis-Chafee said.

"It's to all of our advantage for those people to know, and hopefully like, each other. And we run into difficulties like the issue with the Chinese delegation, who were clearly quite offended by Dr. Sakharov's speech," in which he enjoined his colleagues to speak out against repression and killings of intellectuals in China.

"The question in Pugwash tradition has always been resolved the same way. That is, it's more important to keep those channels open than it is to issue a statement. The Pugwash conferences have been very supportive of Dr. Sakharov for many years, and have put a lot of pressure on the Soviet Union but but they did it in such a respectful way that the Soviet Union has never withdrawn from the movement," Sabonis-Chafee said.

Mirroring the senior Americans and Soviets at the Cambridge Pugwash meetings, Sabonis-Chafee was more occupied with questions of foreign policy while Vorontsov looked first to internal developments in his nation, then to the potential impact on foreign relations.

While his American counterpart is still a student – she will begin graduate studies at Princeton this autumn to supplement an undergraduate degree in literature taken when her career direction was less-defined – Vorontsov's career already has been launched.

An honors graduate in economics from Kiev State University, he admitted upon graduation to studies at the Academy of Science of the Ukraine in socialist economic integration. Having defended a doctorate thesis on that subject last year, he can say with authority that "the main problem in our country now is lack of any economic theory."

Vorontsov is a member of the Central Committee of Komsomol, a 35-million-member organization of Soviets aged 14 to 35. As officer in charge of international economic and scientific links for the organization, he has traveled broadly and, he said, "in the framework of the Pugwash movement I've gotten a kind of hobby, a second interest, in the economic problems of conversion from military to civilian industry."

This touches on the attraction of Pugwash for both Vorontsov and Sabonis-Chafee.

While other organizations dream of what could be, Pugwash plans for it, they say. While others debate whether it will ever be possible to convert military industry for civilian use, members are sketching out plans of how to go about it.

"Pugwash has put many years into developing a whole series of visions," Sabonis-Chafee said.

And people to propagate them. ◆

Toward Globalism And Away From War

SUGGESTED "SUPER PROJECTS" AS ALTERNATIVES TO ARMS EXPENDITURES

The following is a reprint of an article by Masaki Nakajima, Director and Senior Adviser, Mitsubishi Research Institute, Inc., Mitsubishi Research Review, Vol. 1, No. 1, Autumn 1986.

Mr. Nakajima was born in 1905 and graduated from the Faculty of Economics, University of Tokyo in 1928. Upon graduating, Mr. Nakajima joined The Mitsubishi Bank, Ltd. and in 1960 was appointed managing director. He later assumed the presidency of Mitsubishi Steel Mfg. Co., Ltd. Upon the inception of MIRI, Mr. Nakajima was appointed president and later became chairman. In addition to his current role as director and senior adviser, Mr. Nakajima is an active member of the Industrial Structure Council, Ministry of International Trade and Industry, director of Japan Productivity Center, and chairman of Japan Data Processing Association. Mr. Nakajima is the founding father of the GIF concept.

"Expanding interdependence among nations"... "Collapse of the global division into two blocs under the domination of two great powers"... "Ongoing conflict between East and West, North and South"... Are these the phrases which most aptly describe the state of the world today? And do they describe situations that are to continue in the future? Or, perhaps, will they deteriorate even further? And can we do nothing whatsoever to prevent such deterioration? Are we truly so very powerless?

For a long time, I have frequently asked myself what we Japanese might be able to do within the flux of history... what role it is that we have been given. I have pondered the prospects for Spaceship Earth hurtling on its devastating course of self-destruction: confrontation between East and West, an arms race expanding into the reaches of outer space, conflict between North and South, an ever widening gulf between the wealthy and the poor, depletion of natural resources brought on by unbridled development, the destruction of all that is green. And as a student of economics I think back on the 1920s and '30s: on disarmament without proper alternative measures carried out in the wake of military expansion, on the ensuing recession, economic depression, and on mankind's most useless act of all – war. And I remember what it was like, and I am unable to forget.

Yet even in those dark days before and after the great war, I recall two topics that brought cheer and hope amid widespread misfortune: the New Deal and the Marshall Plan. And I asked myself, isn't there something we could learn from man's common body of wisdom?

It has been my good fortune to have the opportunity to take part in the founding of the Mitsubishi Research Institute. Here, I have found a place where I could work with young colleagues, where together we could ponder questions of a synthetic disciplinary nature. The result of these collective endeavors was the announcement of the Global Infrastructure Fund (GIF) concept in December 1977. The GIF borrows from Keynesian theory in its transcendence above internationalism into a realm of post-internationalism. In this respect, it is like a Marshall Plan of worldwide scale, based on a globalism for the entire community of mankind.

In creating the GIF, I envisioned it at the opposite pole to "mankind's most useless act" – war, especially nuclear war. What might be possible, I thought, if part of the effort expended on war (nearly one trillion dollars was spent on military-related activities in fiscal 1985) were instead directed to construction oriented to peace? If we, mankind, were to join hands and work together, what feats might we be capable of? What can, what *must* we do for our neighbors here on this planet, this beautiful blue sphere that stirred the emotions of the astronauts traveling through space?

The answer, I believed, was, in economic terms, to create effective demand, to expand markets and, like the New Deal, to build an infrastructure that could be shared by all humanity including developing regions.

At the time of the GIF's inception, I called for a cumulative investment target of $500 billion during the remaining 20-odd years of this century – a sum nearly equal to the military outlays of the United States during World War II. These funds would be used to carry out a number of "super-projects" which had long been the technological dreams of mankind, projects costing upwards of $10 billion apiece. Among the projects which we proposed are the following:

Greening of Deserts
Greening of the deserts in the Sahara, the Sinai, and the Arabian peninsula. The related countries are North African nations, Israel, and the Arab states.

Collection Station for Solar Heat
Erection of a large-scale installation for the collection of solar energy in a remote part of the world. Total investment in land, pipelines and accessory equipment would reach $20 to $50 trillion. Its total energy output would be equivalent to 200 billion barrels of oil.

Second Panama Canal

I. Construction in Panama of the Second Canal – so called "Nagano Plan."
II. Construction in Nicaragua of a large canal linking the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. Related countries are the U.S., Panama and Nicaragua.

Kra Isthmus Canal
A 170-kilometer-long canal linking Phangnga Bay on the west to the Gulf of Siam on

continued

"SUPER PROJECTS" continued

the east coast. This would shorten by 2,400 kilometers the sailing distance to and from the Indian Ocean. The related countries are Thailand, Malaysia and Singapore.

Electric Power Generation Using Oceanic Energy

I. There are 12 promising areas along undeveloped ocean shores extending from the equator to the temperate zones. Maximum generating potential of one area is 35 million kilowatts. The total for the 12 areas is about 200 million kilowatts.
II. Oceanic thermal energy conversion (OTEC).
III. Tidal electric power generation.

Himalayan Hydro-Electric Project
Damming of the Sanpo River on the upper reaches of the Brahmaputra in the frontier area between China and the Indian province of Assam to make it flow into India through a tunnel across the Himalayas. Potential generating capacity of 50 million kilowatts maximum, 37 million kilowatts average. Annual generating capacity is 240 to 330 billion kilowatt hours.

Control of Sea Currents in the Bering Strait
Constructing a dam across the Bering Strait at its narrowest point (85 kilometers wide, 45 miles deep) to control the sea currents flowing from the Arctic Ocean. This would alter atmospheric conditions in the North Pacific and make the climate more temperate. The related countries are the U.S. and the U.S.S.R.

African Central Lake
Control the flow of the Congo River by building a dam to create a vast lake in the Congo and Chad regions of Central Africa to improve natural conditions in the area. The related countries are the Central African nations.

Hydraulic Power Plant in South America
Construction of nine dams and seven artificial lakes across the Amazon, the Orinoco and the Paraguay. The related countries are Brazil, Venezuela, Colombia, Peru, Bolivia, Paraguay and Argentina.

Quattara Depression Project
Construction of a canal between El Dabaa and El Seira. Construction of a port at El Seira. By the flow of water through the canal, electric power is generated. The related country is Egypt.

New Silk Road
Construction of a superhighway, a modern version of the ancient "Silk Road," across the Eurasian continent from the central part of Europe to China. The related regions are Europe, the Middle East, central Asia, the U.S.S.R. and China.

Gibraltar Strait Bridge/Tunnel
Construction of a bridge/tunnel between Morocco and Spain. European and African continents are connected through surface transportation. The primary commodities will be carried easily from Africa to Europe. The products of both continents will be much easier to exchange over/through the bridge/tunnel.

Global Network of Superports
Construction of a southwest Atlantic port in South America (in Brazil) as a counterpart of the Asian port in Japan. The global network of superports will be formed and will consist of the Asian port, southwest Atlantic port, Seattle and Rotterdam. A semi-superport will also be constructed at Batum Island in Indonesia.

Global Satellite Communications Network
Construction of global communications network by communications satellites and ground stations for various media. Direct television broadcast system is to be included, especially for the Third World.

Construction of TransEuropean North-South Motorway
This motorway would begin in Gdansk and continue south through Warsaw, Krakow, Budapest and Belgrade, and end at Athens.

In selecting these projects, foremost consideration was paid to avoiding an acceleration in consumption of natural resources; instead, we sought projects that would actually create new resources. Also, in keeping with our global goals, in principle we chose projects of multi-national scale. Stated in briefest terms, we sought an alternative to disarmament and the basic transfer of technology to the Third World through the long term.

Funding for the projects would come from various sources: initially from the flow of oil dollars; large-scale transfer of resources from North to South through the ODA and other means; armament taxes; global contributions in direct proportion to national GNP; and so forth.

Since its announcement, the GIF concept has, most fortunately, received strong interest and support from all quarters. An especially ardent backer has been the GIF Study Club of the Doko Forum, which is made up of numerous interested leaders from financial, academic and government related circles. The Club was organized by Mr. Toshio Doko and Dr. Eishiro Saito, Honorary Chairman and Chairman, respectively, of the Japan Federation of Economic Organizations, which was one of the first organizations to take a positive stance in approving of the GIF and its aims.

The GIF Study Club acts in cooperation with support groups around the world, and most recently it has co-sponsored – together with the International Federation of Institutes for Advanced Study (IFIAS) (Sweden), the Large-Scale Program Institute (U.S.A.) and Alaska Pacific University – the first international conference on the GIF concept convened in Anchorage, Alaska. The conference was attended by 80 renowned specialists from 20 nations. After extensive discussion, on July 11, 1986, the members issued a joint "Anchorage Declaration" as the important first step in promoting the realization of the GIF concept. ◆

中島正樹

Masaki Nakajima

"THE BIG FIVE"

Five Major Rivers Drain More Than Half Of The Conterminous U.S.

The material on the following four pages has been excerpted from a booklet produced by the U.S. Department of the Interior's U.S. Geological Survey: " THE BIG FIVE": Some Facts And Figures On Our Nation's Largest Rivers . No date given.

The Nation's rivers and streams provide tremendous quantities of water to urban and rural America, and, in terms of average streamflow in the United States, water is abundant. There are, however, large differences in availability of water from place to place and from one time to another.

Continuous records of stage and discharge are collected by the U.S. Geological Survey, Water Resources Division at more than 7,000 stream gaging stations in the United States on a cooperative basis with other Federal and State and local government agencies. Data from less than 200 of these sites are processed on a current basis and used in compiling the streamflow map and surface water summary published in the monthly release "National Water Conditions". Groundwater, water-quality, and reservoir data are also summarized in the "National Water Conditions."

This booklet describes, in statistical terms, the amount of water that can be expected in the St. Lawrence River, the Columbia River, and the Mississippi River, along with two of its major tributaries, the Ohio and the Missouri (see Figure 1). These five major rivers drain more than half of the conterminous United States and their combined flow serves as a useful guide to the status of the Nation's water resources....

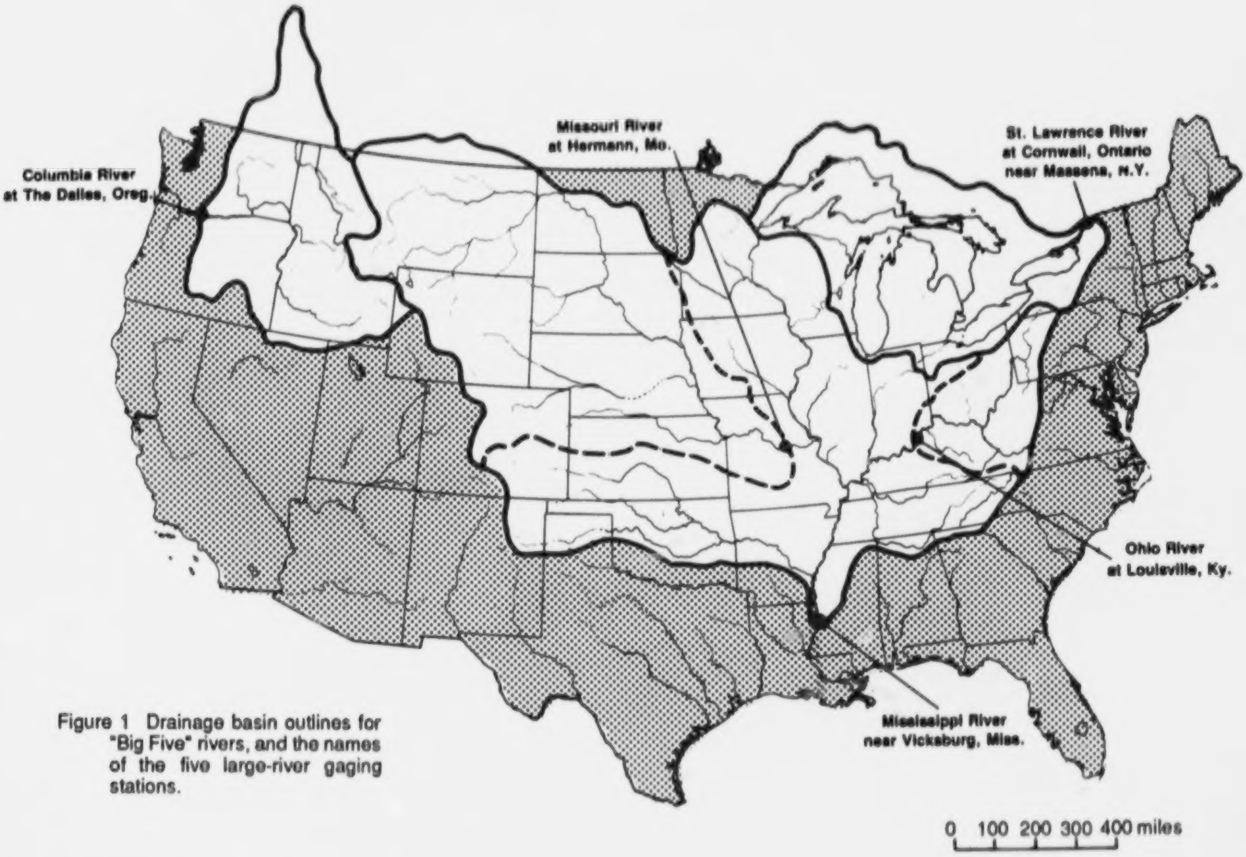
Columbia River
at The Dalles, Oreg.
Missouri River
at Hermann, Mo.
St. Lawrence River
at Cornwall, Ontario
near Massena, N.Y.
Ohio River
at Louisville, Ky.
Mississippi River
near Vicksburg, Miss.
0 100 200 300 400 miles

Figure 1 Drainage basin outlines for "Big Five" rivers, and the names of the five large-river gaging stations.

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"THE BIG FIVE" continued

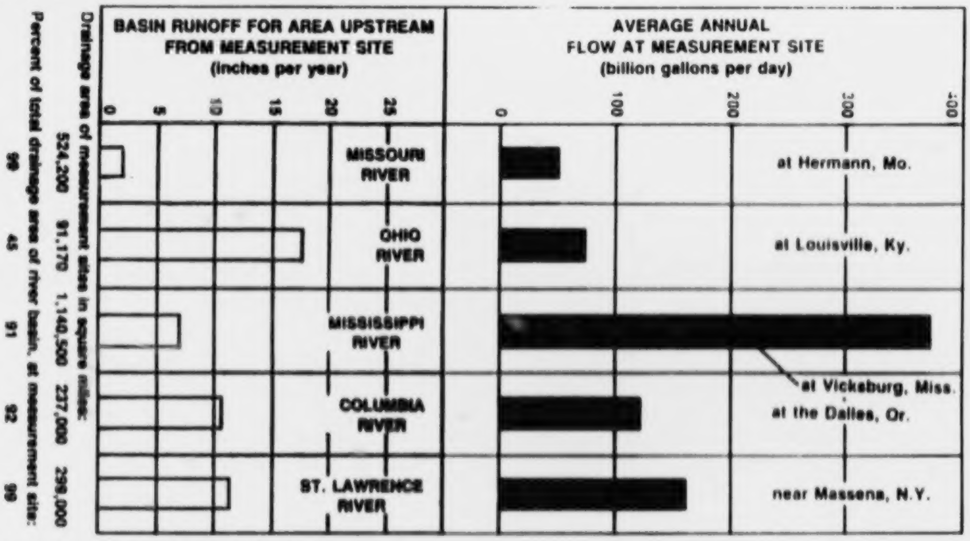

Figure 3 Average streamflow and runoff in five large river basins during 30-year reference period, 1951-80.

The graph in Figure 3 compares average streamflow between the five large river basins (drainage areas upstream from the measurement sites noted on the graph). The upper half of the graph expresses the average streamflow in billion gallons per day (bgd) at the measurement site. In Figure 4, the huge quantity of water represented by 1 bgp may be visualized if the reader considers that 1 billion gallons is equal to a column of water whose base is that of a football field (160 feet wide and 360 feet long, goalpost to goalpost) and whose height is more than 4 times that of the Washington Monument (4.2 x 555 feet). The bottom half of the graph in Figure 3 shows the streamflow data converted to average runoff in inches per year to make the data easily comparable to precipitation data. The relative high runoff in the humid East and parts of the Far West are in sharp contrast to the much lower average runoff of the Central United States as represented by the Missouri River basin. All the data shown on the graph are long-term averages. The actual dependable supply of water from streams is often much less because of wide variation from season to season and from year to year, and because of topographic, geologic, hydrologic, ecologic, and economic constraints affecting water storage above and below ground.

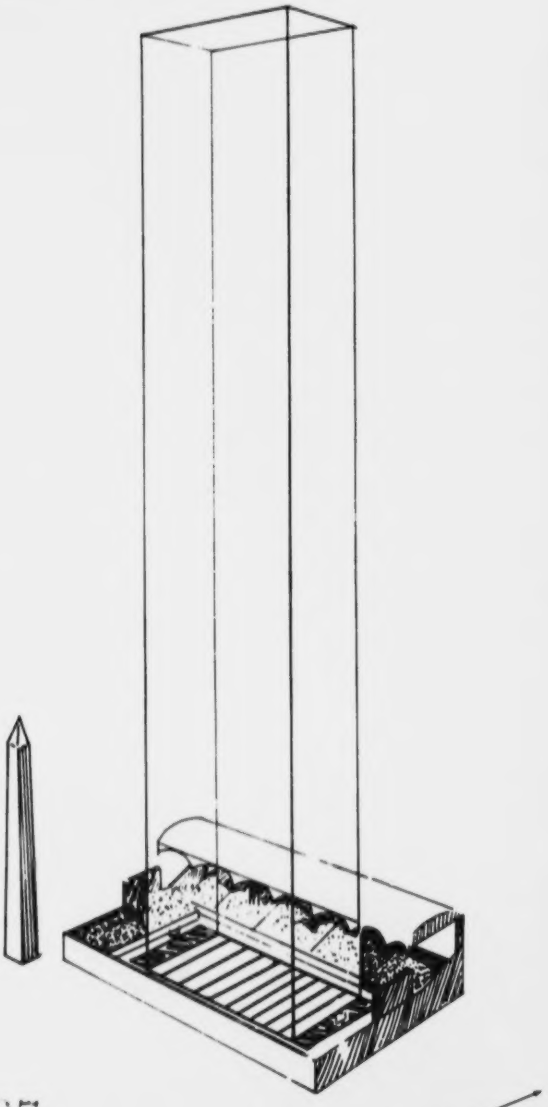

Figure 4 One billion gallons is equal to a column of water whose base is equal to that of a football field and whose height is more than 4 times that of the Washington Monument.

continued

"THE BIG FIVE" continued

When a quick assessment of the Nation's surface water supplies is required, monthly data for these five large rivers are compiled and compared with long-term averages computed for those gaging sites.

Table 1 lists mean annual discharge and flow statistics for the "Big Five" rivers and for the combined flow of the Mississippi, St. Lawrence, and Columbia rivers.

Table 1.—*Statistical data for the "Big Five" rivers*

Stream location	Drainage area (square miles)	Mean annual discharge to Sept. 1980	Quartiles[2]	Discharge Data for reference period—1951–80*												Calendar year
				Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	
St. Lawrence River at Cornwall,[1] Ontario, near Massena, N.Y. (Period of record 1860–1983.)	298,800	157	75	160	163	173	186	191	192	188	183	180	176	179	166	179
			50	148	151	162	172	180	181	176	170	168	164	160	155	167
			25	140	137	139	151	156	152	155	149	148	139	137	139	149
Maximum				173	184	195	210	218	226	226	213	205	198	192	194	199
Year				(1886)	(1978)	(1974)	(1973)	(1973)	(1973)	(1973)	(1974)	(1973)	(1973)	(1981)	(1981)	(1973)
Minimum				107	100	114	116	114	122	126	121	116	113	110	110	119
Year				(1935)	(1936)	(1935)	(1964)	(1965)	(1965)	(1934)	(1934)	(1934)	(1934)	(1934)	(1934)	(1934–35)
Mississippi River at Vicksburg,[1] Miss. (Period of record 1928–83.)	1,136,500	373	75	477	636	705	753	639	450	383	265	231	273	337	462	418
			50	417	435	526	601	542	353	273	218	182	191	207	320	363
			25	227	306	441	479	384	291	228	180	139	152	163	181	305
Maximum				820	1,256	966	1,194	1,196	984	818	549	395	363	533	741	634
Year				(1950)	(1937)	(1945)	(1945)	(1973)	(1929)	(1928)	(1958)	(1979)	(1979)	(1972)	(1982)	(1973)
Minimum				94	132	210	264	220	140	119	81	82	71	79	84	203
Year				(1940)	(1934)	(1941)	(1954)	(1934)	(1934)	(1934)	(1936)	(1936)	(1939)	(1939)	(1939)	(1931)
Columbia River at The Dalles, Oreg. (Period of adjusted record 1928–83.)	237,000	125	75	82	91	93	178	357	397	219	103	67	65	70	79	141
			50	56	68	79	143	276	311	181	93	63	59	57	57	123
			25	46	59	68	109	242	288	137	78	57	50	49	46	113
Maximum				139	127	204	258	434	536	279	148	98	108	127	133	165
Year				(1974)	(1982)	(1982)	(1943)	(1957)	(1974)	(1954)	(1976)	(1959)	(1959)	(1927)	(1933)	(1974)
Minumum				24	33	38	76	143	161	78	66	48	39	32	32	72
Year				(1937)	(1937)	(1977)	(1929)	(1977)	(1977)	(1977)	(1980)	(1973)	(1929)	(1936)	(1936)	(1977)
Ohio River at Louisville, Ky. (Period of record 1928–83.)	91,170	75	75	130	160	226	162	121	70	44	38	26	29	57	116	87
			50	98	113	160	135	85	41	32	24	15	23	40	84	73
			25	63	78	107	103	62	28	20	13	11	14	24	43	63
Maximum				385	278	339	261	195	146	119	98	108	99	121	208	117
Year				(1937)	(1939)	(1945)	(1948)	(1958)	(1981)	(1928)	(1958)	(1979)	(1979)	(1972)	(1972)	(1979)
Minimum				14	25	45	48	19	11	5.2	3.2	3.9	2.8	4.3	9.1	40
Year				(1931)	(1934)	(1969)	(1946)	(1941)	(1936)	(1930)	(1930)	(1930)	(1930)	(1930)	(1930)	(1941)
Missouri River at Hermann, Mo. (Period of record 1897–83.)	524,200	51	75	31	46	70	92	89	73	59	46	58	53	53	36	58
			50	22	32	48	57	59	56	49	36	35	39	35	26	48
			25	14	19	35	46	41	47	36	32	28	29	26	16	35
Maximum				83	87	173	230	150	236	288	156	135	143	93	117	102
Year				(1973)	(1973)	(1973)	(1927)	(1943)	(1915)	(1951)	(1915)	(1951)	(1973)	(1961)	(1982)	(1973)
Minimum				4.4	7.9	15	24	21	25	22	12	14	9.8	10.7	7.8	20
Year				(1940)	(1940)	(1964)	(1956)	(1934)	(1934)	(1936)	(1936)	(1937)	(1939)	(1939)	(1937)	(1940)
Combined flow of Mississippi, St. Lawrence, and Columbia Rivers. (Period of record 1928–83.)	1,676,500	655	75	709	837	942	1,109	1,171	969	736	542	472	519	553	680	701
			50	643	669	763	905	981	874	625	477	413	413	431	541	649
			25	435	522	664	811	870	803	573	437	374	362	364	392	588
Maximum				1,091	1,423	1.172	1,442	1,606	1,512	1,164	771	629	600	775	986	868
Year				(1974)	(1937)	(1945)	(1945)	(1973)	(1974)	(1928)	(1958)	(1979)	(1973)	(1972)	(1982)	(1950)
Minimum				257	305	410	557	615	484	370	288	262	257	258	262	418
Year				(1940)	(1931)	(1941)	(1981)	(1977)	(1934)	(1934)	(1936)	(1936)	(1939)	(1939)	(1939)	(1931)

*Maximum and minimums are for period of record. 1985 and 1986 data are provisional.
All discharge figures are in billion gallons per day.

[1] Flow data provided by U.S. Army Corps of Engineers.

[2] Quartiles are 25-percent points (computed by ranking mean monthly flows for the reference period from highest, 1, to lowest, 30) indicating the flow which was not exceeded by 75, 50, and 25 percent of the flows for that month during the reference period. The middle (50-percent) quartile is the median. Flows which fell between the upper and lower quartiles are in the normal range. Flows below the lower (25-percent) quartile are in the below-normal range. Flows which are above the upper (75-percent) quartile are in the above-normal range.

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"THE BIG FIVE" continued

STREAM DISCHARGE
Period of record through 1983

Name of large-river gaging station	Drainage area, in square miles	Period, in years (Total years of record)	Maximum, in cfs; date	Minimum, in cfs; date	Mean, in cfs
Ohio River at Louisville, Ky.	91,170	1926- (55)	1,110,000 Jan. 26, 27, 1937	2,100 Aug. 12, 1930	115,700
St. Lawrence River at Cornwall, Ontario, near Massena, N.Y.	298,800	1860- (123)	352,000 June 22, 1976	139,000 Feb. 7, 1936	243,300
Missouri River at Hermann, Mo.	524,300	1897- (86)	676,000 June 6, 7, 1903	4,200 Jan. 10-12, 1940	80,050
Mississippi River at Vicksburg, Miss.	1,136,500	1928 (55)	2,080,000 Feb. 17, 1937	99,400 Nov.1,1939	578,700
Columbia River at The Dalles, Oreg.	237,000	1857- (105)	1,240,000 June 6, 1894	12,100 Apr. 16, 1968	193,500

Table 2.—*Table of maximum, minimum, and mean flows*

The maximum, minimum, and mean flow of record for each of the five rivers are listed in Table 2 to further illustrate the highly variable nature of flow in the river systems. Daily flows at each of the gaging sites are also regulated by releases from upstream locks and dams and storage reservoirs.

Discharge values are computed in cubic feet per second (cfs) at most gaging stations in the United States. The following conversion factors should be used to convert cubic feet per second (cfs) to million gallon per minute (mgm), million gallons per day (mgd), or billion gallons per day (gbd):

1 cfs = 0.0004488 million gallons per minute
= 0.646317 million gallons per day
= 0.000646317 billion gallons per day.

Thus, the measurements of the "Big 5" indicate the general status of the Nation's streams and provide a quick check on surface-water resources of the conterminous United States. ❖

continued

EX-FIGHTER PILOT FIRES WARNING TO URBAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

The following article by Diego Ribadeneira appeared in The Boston Globe, November 15, 1989. Reprinted courtesy of The Boston Globe.

When he finished his speech, the youngsters gave him a thundering ovation and crowded around seeking autographed copies of his picture.

"Awesome," "great" and "incredible" were just some of the superlatives used to describe his performance. Some said they wanted to be just like him when they grew up.

The teen-agers were not crowing about a pop music singer or a movie star.

What the 1,000 students at Jeremiah Burke High School in Dorchester were raving about was an electrifying speech by a former Navy fighter pilot.

Lt. Drew Brown had students who normally have a difficult time paying attention riveted to their seats as he admonished them to stay off drugs and stay in school.

But Brown's talk was not just another cliche-filled speech on the dangers of drugs and the importance of education.

Combining humor with frankness, Brown spoke to the students in their own language and not as an adult speaking to children. It was a blunt, eloquent and potent message.

"Playtime is over," said Brown, who had sauntered into the auditorium with the swagger of a prizefighter entering a boxing arena. "If you don't plan on going to college and getting a four-year degree, you better get out of high school today because McDonald's needs you. If you don't go to college, you're going to be a bum."

Brown, 34, who overcame an impoverished childhood in a New York housing development to become, in 1981, the only black at the time to pilot a Navy attack jet, kept his speech simple.

"Everybody wakes up just to be happy and have fun," said Brown, who cast an imposing figure with his dark sunglasses and the light blue and yellow uniform of a Navy pilot. "But you see, since I went to college my level of fun is up here. When I party, I party in Paris. When I jam, I jam in Jamaica."

And Brown said he did not have to resort to selling drugs to buy a nice car. With a college degree and a successful stint in the Navy behind him, he landed a high-paying job with Federal Express and said he drives a "nice black Cadillac."

Recalling the days when slaves were not permitted to learn to read in an effort to keep them uneducated, Brown told the students in the predominantly black audience that they must take advantage of school or blacks will never achieve high levels of economic success.

"You better wake up," said Brown, whose speech at Burke High School was sponsored by Codex Corp. in Canton, a subsidiary of Motorola Corp. "I know some of you don't want to listen. You're too bad to listen to me. But that's OK, because when I pull into the McDonald's drive-through in my black Cadillac, I'm going to need you to hand me my large fries. Either you work for $3.65 an hour with the decimal point after the three or you go to college and maybe you work for $365 an hour with the decimal point after the five."

Returning to his antidrug theme, Brown said: "Yeah, I like getting high. I get high when they shoot me from zero to 140 m.p.h. in 2.3 seconds off of an aircraft carrier."

Shaking his head and reminding students that brain cells do not reproduce, Brown said, "How can you be so stupid to put something in your head that's going to destroy something that ain't going to come back. If you use drugs, you're going to die. Why do you think they call it 'dope', dope?"

Brown, whose father was Drew Bundini Brown, the famed trainer of Muhammad Ali, reminded the students that he, too, was young once. And like many youngsters, he was only interested in "making a lot of money and not having to work hard." But when he confronted the lure of easy money offered by drug dealing, Brown said his "common sense computer" told him that drugs would lead only to "the coffin or to jail."

Raising the thorny issue of racism, Brown said bluntly, "There is no black and white. There is only intelligence and ignorance. If you blame your failure on your color, check it out because you're a loser. Yes, there is racism, but guess what? Racism is the best thing that could've happened to some of you. Because if somebody tells you you can't be a doctor, it's going to make you work twice as hard, and you'll be twice the doctor of anybody else. Let me tell you, when I was in Beirut and when I was in Libya, I was ready to die. But not for African-Americans or white Americans but for three colors: red, white and blue."

Everyone can learn, said Brown, driving home his point by using the street language that many youngsters have mastered.

"Yo, homeboy. I met this deaf babe and then we slid by the crib and yeah we were kicking it loud on some cold deaf jam and then all of a sudden she started buggin' and I started trippin'," said Brown, eliciting laughter from the audience.

"For all of you who didn't understand, what I said was, 'Good afternoon, my friend. I had the acquaintance of a very nice-looking lady, and we took an excursion over to the apartment. We put a CD in the stereo, and we were enjoying some highly intensified music. At one point, there seemed to be total confusion.' "

If students can learn street talk, Brown said, "you have the intelligence to learn Russian, German, French or whatever you want. But if you don't believe in yourself, no one else is going to believe in you. If you don't make it, go look in the mirror and you'll see the reason why."

The most dramatic moment of Brown's speech occurred when he called off the names of several honor roll students and asked them to stand up.

"If you want to see 'bad', look around you because they are the real role models," he said. "I hear some of you laughing, and I know some of you think they are nerds, but in 10, 15 years, they'll have big nerdy houses and big nerdy cars. And all you people who think you're 'bad' will be asking, 'Excuse me, sir? Do I get out in 10 or 15 years?' " ❖

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE POPULATION REPORTED HAVING REGISTERED OR VOTED: NOVEMBER 1988 AND 1984

This table "finalizes" and expands on some of the data printed in the June 1989 issue of WORLD EAGLE (pp. 29-31) which had been taken from the Advance Report (No. 435) of the source cited below.

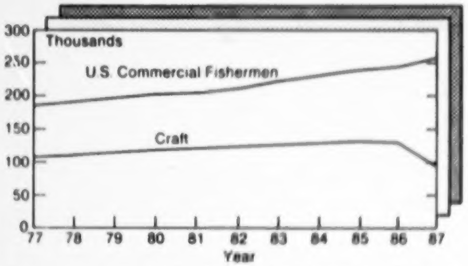
(Numbers in thousands) Characteristic	1988			1984		
	Number of persons	Percent registered	Percent voted	Number of persons	Percent registered	Percent voted
Total, 18 years and over	178,098	66.6	57.4	169,963	68.3	59.9
Race and Hispanic origin:						
White	152,848	67.9	59.1	146,761	69.6	61.4
Black	19,692	64.5	51.5	18,432	66.3	55.8
Hispanic[1]	12,893	35.5	28.8	9,471	40.1	32.6
Sex:						
Male	84,531	65.2	56.4	80,327	67.3	59.0
Female	93,568	67.8	58.3	89,636	69.3	60.8
Age:						
18 to 24 years	25,569	48.2	36.2	27,976	51.3	40.8
25 to 44 years	77,863	63.0	54.0	71,023	66.6	58.4
45 to 64 years	45,862	75.5	67.9	44,307	76.6	69.8
65 years and over	28,804	78.4	68.8	26,658	76.9	67.7
Region:						
Northeast	37,874	64.8	57.4	36,868	66.6	59.7
Midwest	43,309	72.5	62.9	42,136	74.6	65.7
South	60,725	65.6	54.5	57,587	66.9	56.8
West	36,190	63.0	55.6	33,372	64.7	58.5
Years of school completed:						
Elementary: 0 to 8 years	19,145	47.5	36.7	20,580	53.4	42.9
High school: 1 to 3 years	21,052	52.8	41.3	22,068	54.9	44.4
4 years	70,033	64.6	54.7	67,807	67.3	58.7
College: 1 to 3 years	34,264	73.5	64.5	30,915	75.7	67.5
4 years or more	33,604	83.1	77.6	28,593	83.8	79.1
Labor force status and class of worker:						
In civilian labor force	119,645	66.3	57.5	111,562	68.4	60.5
Employed	113,836	67.1	58.4	104,173	69.4	61.6
Agriculture	2,986	63.9	53.0	3,132	64.3	55.9
Nonagricultural industries	110,851	67.2	58.6	101,042	69.6	61.8
Private wage and salary wkrs	84,199	63.7	54.6	77,160	66.7	58.6
Government workers	17,640	82.4	75.2	15,813	82.0	75.9
Self-employed workers[2]	9,012	70.5	63.3	8,068	72.4	65.2
Unemployed	5,809	50.4	38.6	7,389	54.3	44.0
Not in labor force	58,453	67.2	57.3	58,401	68.1	58.9
Family income[3]:						
Under $5,000	5,954	47.6	34.7	7,843	49.8	37.5
$5,000 to $9,999	10,929	52.8	41.3	14,594	56.8	46.2
$10,000 to $14,999	15,682	57.4	47.7	18,131	62.9	53.5
$15,000 to $19,999	25,009	63.2	53.5	15,997	65.5	57.1
$20,000 to $24,999	12,296	67.4	57.8	14,790	68.7	61.1
$25,000 to $34,999	22,995	71.9	64.0	25,322	74.2	67.0
$35,000 to $49,999	24,452	77.9	70.3	20,058	79.8	72.9
$50,000 and over	16,990	81.8	75.6	15,160	82.0	76.0
Income not reported	9,594	61.5	54.2	8,355	62.9	56.9
Tenure[4]:						
Owner occupied	47,540	78.1	70.0	45,433	79.1	71.8
Renter occupied	17,352	49.7	39.8	16,679	53.4	43.7

[1] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.
[2] Includes unpaid family workers.
[3] Restricted to members of families. Income in current dollars.
[4] Restricted to family householders.

Source: Bureau of the Census. Series P-20, No. 440. Current Population Reports. Voting and Registration in the Election of November 1988. Table C. P.4.

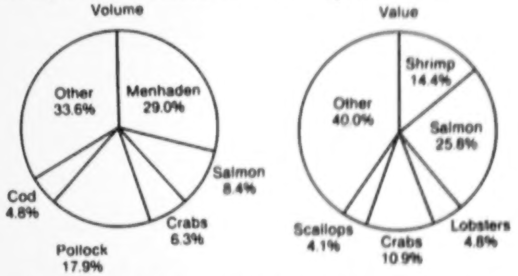
U.S. COMMERCIAL FISHING

U.S. Commercial Fishermen and Craft



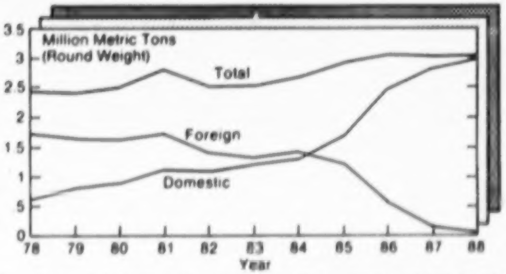
There were an estimated 256,000 men and women engaged in commercial fishing on a full-time basis utilizing approximately 93,400 fishing craft in 1987, the most recent year for which such data are available. (Data for Maryland and Virginia were not available.) The fleet consists primarily of boats under five "gross registered tons" due to the near-water nature of most of the fisheries. Traditionally, the U.S. commercial industry has been characterized by the rather specific nature of various fisheries, most of which are carried out in relative isolation from one another. However, to remain economically viable in today's complex fisheries, there is an increasing trend towards rigging craft to be more easily adaptable to compete in more than one fishery.

Major Commercial Species



In terms of volume, the top five species caught by commercial fishermen in 1988 were menhaden (an oily fish used primarily for industrial purposes), pollock, salmon, crabs, and cod. Salmon, shrimp, crabs, lobsters, and scallops were the top five species in terms of value. Cameron, Louisiana, with landings of 438.9 million pounds (199.1 thousand metric tons), was the leading port in terms of volume. Kodiak, Alaska, with landings valued at $166.3 million, was the leading port in terms of value.

Catch in the U.S. EEZ

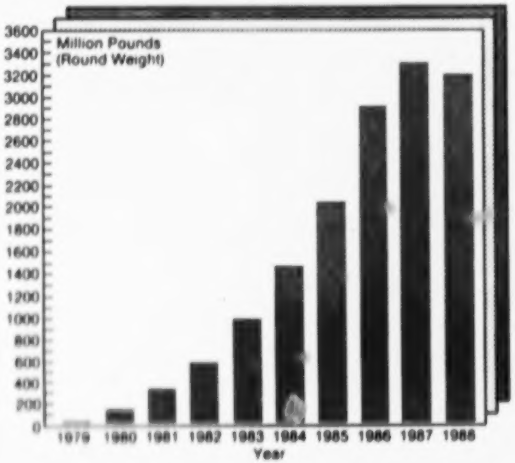


In the interest of commercial and recreational fishermen, the Magnuson Fishery Conservation and Management Act of 1976 (MFCMA) was enacted by the Congress to provide the national focus and effort deemed necessary to protect our fishery resources from overfishing by foreign nations. The MFCMA established an Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) extending from the seaward boundaries of the territorial sea (3 nautical miles from shore in most cases) to 200 nautical miles from shore. All fishery resources within the EEZ, except highly migratory species of tuna, are subject to management by one or more of the eight Regional Fishery Management Councils created by the MFCMA. The Councils analyze scientific data and hold frequent public meetings in the process of developing Fishery Management Plans (FMP's) for species requiring management. The FMP's are designated to provide for the optimum utilization of the resources, while giving preference to U.S. fishermen over foreign fishermen. As of December 31, 1988, thirty FMP's were fully implemented. A measure of the success of the MFCMA is the declining foreign catch within the EEZ.

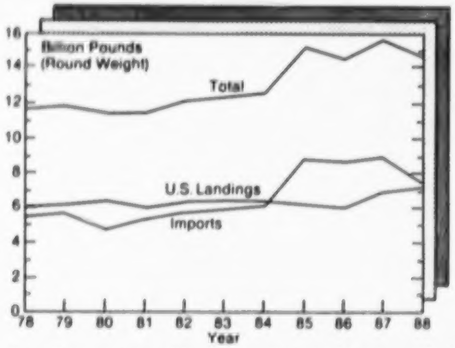
Joint Ventures

The MFCMA led to the development of "joint ventures" in 1979, wherein U.S. commercial fishermen catch and sell to foreign vessels certain species for which U.S. demand is low relative to the abundance of the species. United States fishermen thus derive income from species which would otherwise be underutilized, and also benefit by fuel savings since the catches are transferred to foreign vessels at sea, eliminating the need to return to port to unload. "Joint venture" catches of species such as cods, flounders, and Alaska pollock have grown dramatically from 23.3 million pounds (10.6 thousand metric tons) worth $1.3 million in 1979 to 3.2 billion pounds (1,452.2 thousand metric tons) worth $221.1 million in 1988.

Joint Venture Catch



U.S. Supply of Fishery Products

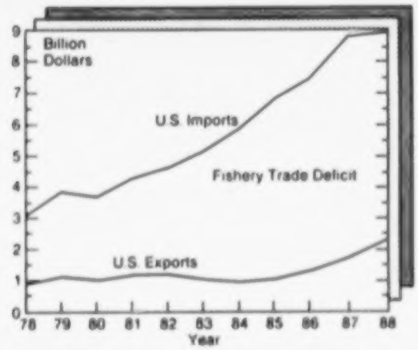


Despite the generally increasing volume of U.S. commercial landings over the years, the U.S. has remained a major importer of fishery products, and 1988 imports accounted for 50.8 percent of the total U.S. supply of all fishery products in terms of a round weight equivalent volume.

tinued

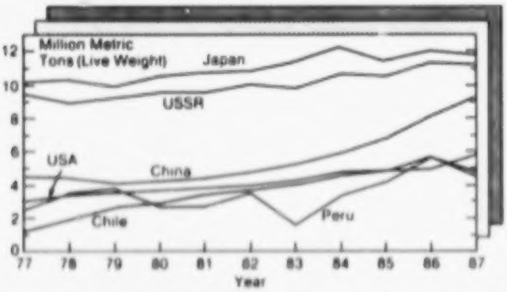
COMMERCIAL FISHING continued

Foreign Trade



In terms of value, total fishery imports in 1988 reached a record $8.9 billion, while U.S. exports of fishery products were valued at $2.3 billion. Historically, the U.S. has run a fishery trade deficit since 1895. Shrimp imports alone were valued at $1.8 billion in 1988. Other major items were fresh and frozen fish fillets, and frozen fish blocks used to produce fish sticks. Major export items included fresh, frozen, and canned salmon, and fresh and frozen snow crabs.

Leading Fishing Nations

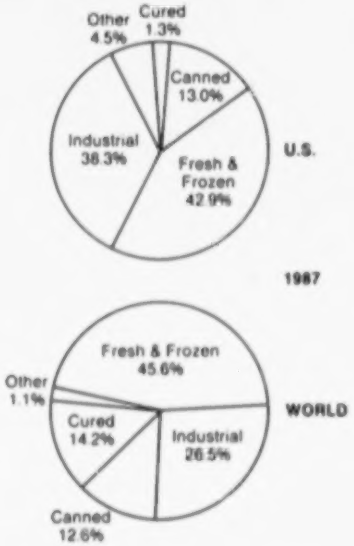


The U.S. ranked fourth among major fishing nations in 1987, the most recent year for which comparable data are available. The 'live' weights referred to in the above graph include shell weights, whereas weights used elsewhere in this brochure do not.

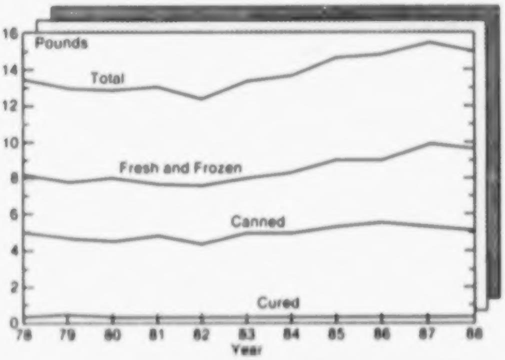
Disposition of Catch: U.S. and World

The U.S. utilized a greater percentage of catch for industrial (non-food) purpose than most other countries, due largely to the great abundance of menhaden in the Gulf and Atlantic. The large difference in that portion of catch which is cured reflects the dietetic preferences and lesser availability of refrigeration among some foreign nations.

Disposition of Catch



Per Capita Consumption



Per capita consumption of commercially caught fish and shellfish in 1988 was 15.0 pounds. Per capita consumption of fish caught by marine recreational anglers is estimated to be between three and four pounds each year. The current emphasis on the role of diet in health makes the nutritional qualities of seafood especially appreciated, since most fish and shellfish have a low-fat/high-protein content. Nutritional demands of consumers, as well as improving methods of catching, handling, and processing seafood may reasonably be expected to lead to greater consumption levels in future years.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. NOAA. National Marine Fisheries Service. Fisheries of the United States 1988. Supplemental May 1989.

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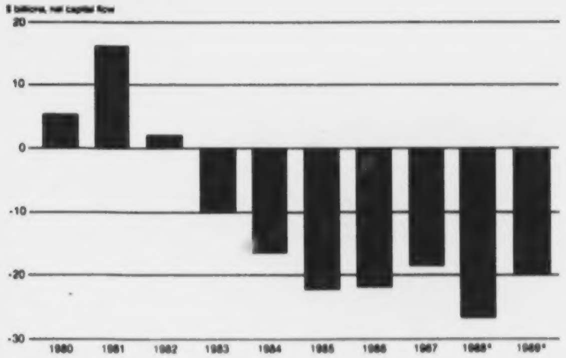
COUNTRIES OF LATIN AMERICA
GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT, TOTAL AND PER CAPITA, BY COUNTRY: 1960, 1970, 1980, 1985-1988

Country	Total (Millions 1988 dollars)							Per capita (1988 dollars)			
	1960	1970	1980	1985	1986	1987	1988*	1960	1970	1980	1988*
Argentina	49,775	74,690	96,145	86,009	90,705	92,540	91,493	2,384	3,075	3,359	2,862
Bahamas	955	1,836	2,233	2,424	2,487	2,596	2,648	8,448	10,737	10,631	11,317
Barbados	462	844	994	963	1,012	1,038	1,075	2,000	3,530	3,994	4,233
Bolivia	2,175	3,536	5,473	4,913	4,772	4,869	5,006	634	818	983	724
Brazil	73,544	131,466	300,851	318,190	342,311	354,664	353,688	1,013	1,372	2,481	2,449
Chile	14,046	21,252	27,284	26,758	28,273	29,895	32,095	1,845	2,236	2,448	2,518
Colombia	14,399	24,060	41,138	45,973	48,651	51,239	53,155	927	1,157	1,595	1,739
Costa Rica	1,774	3,159	5,469	5,546	5,853	6,170	6,404	1,435	1,825	2,394	2,235
Dominican Republic	2,660	4,364	8,530	9,209	9,500	10,274	10,363	823	987	1,497	1,509
Ecuador	3,402	5,472	12,840	14,273	14,734	13,958	15,070	771	904	1,581	1,477
El Salvador	2,139	3,703	5,089	4,631	4,660	4,786	4,808	832	1,032	1,125	955
Guatemala	4,358	7,447	12,906	12,196	12,214	12,596	13,042	1,100	1,420	1,866	1,502
Guyana	573	811	921	768	770	775	752	1,008	1,111	1,215	995
Haiti	1,215	1,316	2,092	1,988	2,008	2,003	1,998	331	292	386	319
Honduras	1,199	2,053	3,494	3,681	3,794	3,955	4,107	619	782	954	851
Jamaica	2,623	4,419	4,080	4,094	4,172	4,389	4,472	1,610	2,364	1,880	1,843
Mexico	54,182	106,721	202,226	222,600	214,083	217,260	219,649	1,425	2,022	2,872	2,588
Nicaragua	1,575	3,070	3,179	3,281	3,248	3,225	2,967	1,055	1,495	1,147	819
Panama	1,397	3,000	5,128	5,900	6,098	6,245	5,176	1,264	2,017	2,622	2,229
Paraguay	1,381	2,189	5,074	5,678	5,679	5,925	6,290	779	931	1,612	1,557
Peru	12,250	20,503	29,686	29,214	32,524	35,055	31,942	1,233	1,554	1,716	1,503
Suriname	530	869	1,310	1,293	1,308	1,202	1,228	887	2,337	3,722	3,420
Trinidad and Tobago	3,244	5,060	8,668	7,417	7,175	6,641	6,375	3,848	4,927	8,116	5,510
Uruguay	5,968	6,959	9,368	8,049	8,652	9,164	9,209	2,352	2,478	3,221	2,989
Venezuela	29,102	52,396	78,497	74,422	79,500	81,904	85,223	3,879	4,941	5,225	4,544
Latin America	**284,927**	**491,193**	**872,674**	**899,470**	**934,184**	**962,369**	**968,237**	**1,374**	**1,802**	**2,512**	**2,336**

Source: Inter-American Development Bank. Economic and Social Progress in Latin America: 1989 Report. Table B-1, P.463.

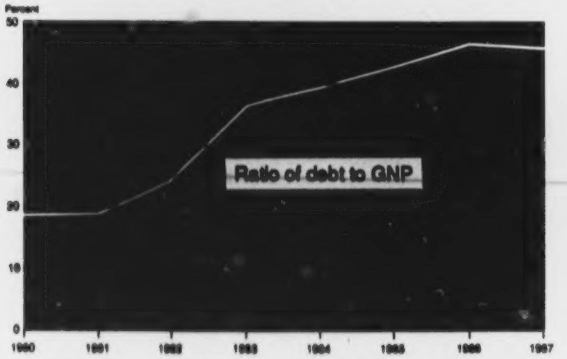
LATIN DEBT CRISIS IS STILL STIFLING TO TRADE

More Capital Has Been Flowing Out of Latin America Than In, Since the Early 1980's



*Estimated.
Sources: International Monetary Fund and Economic Research Service

Latin America's Outstanding Debt Has Grown to Nearly 50 Percent of Total Gross National Product (GNP)



Sources: World Bank, International Monetary Fund and Economic Research Service

The Latin American debt crisis, which has played an important role in substantially reducing U.S. agricultural exports, had its roots in the 1970's, a period of unprecedented economic growth for the region.

That growth was fueled by massive commercial borrowing spurred by very low real international interest rates. At that time, commercial banks had relatively cheap, plentiful petrodollars to lend to developing countries and were optimistic about the countries' ability to repay the loans because it appeared that world inflation would persist for the foreseeable future. In a climate of rising prices, rapid growth, and easy credit, the region's indebtedness grew more than tenfold between 1970 and 1982—from $27 billion to about $300 billion.

The cost of servicing that debt soared in the early 1980's as both nominal and real interest rates rose to record post-World War II levels. "At the same time," explains economist Tim Baxter of USDA's Economic Research Service, "Latin America's capacity to meet its obligations dropped precipitously when global recession depressed commodity prices and cut deeply into export earnings, and the region's access to commercial credit was sharply curtailed."

The debt crisis arose from this combination of high interest payments, falling export earnings, and limited access to new loans.

Compounding Latin America's financial predicament has been the leveling off of resource flows from the major international financial institutions—the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank, and the Inter-American Development Bank.

Most of Latin America's major debtors, including Brazil, Mexico, and Argentina, are now paying more in interest to these public institutions than they receive in new loans. Because of this, Latin American governments are starving for the resources needed to obtain the vital imports and new investments that would sustain growth.

In the past 5 years, the region has paid out $120 billion more in principal and interest than it has received in new loans. To make these payments, Latin American countries have had to reduce imports dramatically.

For the entire region, imports have dropped nearly 30 percent since 1980. In 1981-86, Argentina's total trade fell 50 percent, and its agricultural trade dropped 25 percent. Brazil's total trade fell 35 percent, although its agricultural trade rose 13 percent. Mexico's total trade plummeted 54 percent, and its agricultural trade dropped 52 percent.

Domestic investment in the region has declined by some 30 percent, and foreign investment has plunged by about 75 percent. "In many countries," states Baxter, "machinery, plants, and infrastructure are depreciating faster than they are being replaced, and regional growth has been imperiled for years to come."

Latin America's economic plight has also proved costly for the world's industrialized countries—and for none more than the United States. As Latin American markets have shrunk, the United States has lost $20 billion to $30 billion a year in exports, making it harder to reduce our own trade deficit and eliminating thousands of jobs in U.S. factories.

ERS economists Mathew Shane and David Stallings note that U.S. agriculture has been particularly hurt by the debt crisis. Many countries that had been major markets for U.S. commodities are now unable to buy our food products because of their own diminished foreign exchange earnings. ❖

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Farmline, August 1989. Pp. 4&6.

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U.S. ENERGY EXPENDITURES BY STATE AND PER CAPITA, 1987

Table 1. Energy Expenditures by State, 1987

Ranking	State	Expenditures (million dollars)
1	California	37,694
2	Texas	35,386
3	New York	23,042
4	Illinois	19,303
5	Ohio	18,569
6	Pennsylvania	18,461
7	Florida	16,849
8	Michigan	14,567
9	New Jersey	13,849
10	Louisiana	11,085
11	Indiana	10,865
12	North Carolina	10,327
13	Georgia	10,244
14	Virginia	9,383
15	Tennessee	8,737
16	Massachusetts	8,703
17	Missouri	8,013
18	Alabama	7,326
19	Wisconsin	7,078
20	Maryland	6,778
21	Washington	6,583
22	Kentucky	6,394
23	Minnesota	6,217
24	South Carolina	5,760
25	Arizona	5,382
26	Oklahoma	5,246
27	Connecticut	5,071
28	Kansas	4,831
29	Iowa	4,684
30	Colorado	4,625
31	Mississippi	4,213
32	Oregon	4,065
33	Arkansas	3,790
34	West Virginia	3,123
35	Nebraska	2,612
36	New Mexico	2,448
37	Utah	2,384
38	Maine	1,940
39	Nevada	1,683
40	New Hampshire	1,639
41	Idaho	1,521
42	Hawaii	1,480
43	North Dakota	1,430
44	Montana	1,394
45	Rhode Island	1,393
46	Alaska	1,383
47	Wyoming	1,295
48	Delaware	1,159
49	South Dakota	1,098
50	District of Columbia	1,044
51	Vermont	850
	United States	**393,005**

Source: State Energy Price and Expenditure Data System 1987.

Table 2. Energy Expenditures per Capita by State, 1987

Ranking	State	Expenditures (dollars per capita)
1	Wyoming	2,644
2	Alaska	2,639
3	Louisiana	2,492
4	North Dakota	2,131
5	Texas	2,108
6	Indiana	1,965
7	Kansas	1,952
8	New Jersey	1,804
9	Tennessee	1,799
10	Alabama	1,794
11	Delaware	1,789
12	Montana	1,723
13	Ohio	1,721
14	Kentucky	1,717
15	District of Columbia	1,681
16	South Carolina	1,681
17	Nevada	1,673
18	Illinois	1,666
19	Iowa	1,659
20	West Virginia	1,646
21	Georgia	1,645
22	Nebraska	1,639
23	New Mexico	1,636
24	Maine	1,636
	United States	**1,615**
25	North Carolina	1,611
26	Oklahoma	1,610
27	Mississippi	1,605
28	Arkansas	1,587
29	Virginia	1,586
30	Arizona	1,583
31	Michigan	1,582
32	Connecticut	1,579
33	Missouri	1,569
34	Vermont	1,554
35	New Hampshire	1,552
36	South Dakota	1,548
37	Pennsylvania	1,546
38	Idaho	1,521
39	Maryland	1,494
40	Oregon	1,492
41	Massachusetts	1,486
42	Wisconsin	1,472
43	Minnesota	1,464
44	Washington	1,449
45	Utah	1,419
46	Rhode Island	1,413
47	Colorado	1,404
48	Florida	1,401
49	Hawaii	1,368
50	California	1,363
51	New York	1,292

Source: State Energy Price and Expenditure Data System 1987.

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Source: U.S. Department of Energy. *State Energy Price and Expenditure Report 1987*. Released for Printing September 22, 1989. Tables 1 and 2.

U.S. ENERGY PRICES AND ELECTRICITY PRICES BY STATE, 1987

Table 3. Energy Prices by State, 1987

Ranking	State	Price (dollars per million Btu)
1	District of Columbia	10.25
2	Arizona	9.84
3	Connecticut	9.65
4	Florida	9.41
5	Vermont	9.39
6	New Hampshire	9.34
7	New York	9.21
8	Massachusetts	8.81
9	Hawaii	8.67
10	Rhode Island	8.63
11	North Carolina	8.62
12	Maine	8.24
13	South Carolina	8.09
14	New Jersey	8.06
15	New Mexico	7.95
16	Maryland	7.94
17	Illinois	7.94
18	Tennessee	7.91
19	Virginia	7.75
20	Arkansas	7.74
21	Wisconsin	7.68
22	Delaware	7.66
23	California	7.66
24	Missouri	7.66
25	Michigan	7.62
26	Georgia	7.49
27	Pennsylvania	7.49
28	Oregon	7.47
29	Mississippi	7.42
30	Colorado	7.41
31	Kentucky	7.39
	United States	**7.38**
32	Minnesota	7.34
33	South Dakota	7.34
34	Idaho	7.33
35	Nevada	7.32
36	Ohio	7.31
37	Nebraska	7.24
38	Utah	7.20
39	Iowa	7.15
40	Alabama	6.94
41	Montana	6.94
42	Kansas	6.91
43	Oklahoma	6.61
44	Washington	6.60
45	Indiana	6.10
46	West Virginia	6.06
47	Wyoming	5.93
48	North Dakota	5.91
49	Texas	5.63
50	Alaska	5.15
51	Louisiana	5.06

Source: State Energy Price and Expenditure Data System 1987.

Table 8. Electricity Prices by State, 1987

Ranking	State	Price (dollars per million Btu)
1	Alaska	25.65
2	New York	25.62
3	New Jersey	25.07
4	Hawaii	24.28
5	Connecticut	24.21
6	New Hampshire	24.02
7	Rhode Island	23.84
8	Massachusetts	23.35
9	Vermont	22.88
10	California	22.74
11	Illinois	22.72
12	New Mexico	22.02
13	Arizona	21.30
14	Pennsylvania	21.30
15	Florida	20.38
16	Kansas	19.98
17	Michigan	19.39
18	Delaware	19.09
19	Utah	19.05
20	Maine	18.98
21	Arkansas	18.95
22	Iowa	18.91
23	Missouri	18.89
24	District of Columbia	18.78
	United States	**18.71**
25	Mississippi	18.01
26	North Carolina	18.00
27	Maryland	17.52
28	Indiana	17.49
29	North Dakota	17.39
30	Georgia	17.29
31	Colorado	17.14
32	Louisiana	17.14
33	South Dakota	17.07
34	Tennessee	16.90
35	Ohio	16.87
36	Virginia	16.87
37	Alabama	16.71
38	Oklahoma	16.44
39	Wisconsin	16.25
40	South Carolina	16.24
41	Texas	16.14
42	Minnesota	15.67
43	Nebraska	15.48
44	Kentucky	15.31
45	Nevada	14.92
46	West Virginia	14.65
47	Oregon	12.71
48	Wyoming	12.62
49	Montana	11.25
50	Idaho	10.75
51	Washington	9.91

Source: State Energy Price and Expenditure Data System 1987.

Source: U.S. Department of Energy. *State Energy Price and Expenditure Report 1987*. Released for Printing September 22, 1989. Tables 3 and 8.

COUNTING "THE HOMELESS" IN THE 1990 CENSUS

In a census, the Census Bureau doesn't send or deliver questionnaires to specific people. We send or take them to addresses. How do you count someone whose address is the street, particularly if that person is suspicious of government? Counting homeless people is one of the great challenges we face in the 1990 census.

Yes, we do count the homeless in the census, but we won't provide an official count labelled "homeless." Although we have counted homeless people in previous censuses, the 1990 census will have a more focused and ambitious effort to count selected components of the homeless population.

We expect to count some of this population using regular census procedures; some we will count using our group quarters procedures (see "Other Procedures" below).

But for most of this population, the census comes early. On March 20-21, 1990, we will count persons found in predesignated shelters for the homeless, for abused women, and street locations. For the shelter and street enumeration, we will attempt to recruit those who work with the homeless and the homeless themselves to work as census takers and supervisors.

Why March rather than April 1? Many shelters close April 1, so we had to choose an earlier date. To improve the count, the Census Bureau is working with local areas before the census to identify permanent and temporary shelters and private and public and nonsheltered locations where the homeless are known to congregate.

Shelter Enumeration

The shelter enumeration, which includes pre-identified hotels, motels, emergency shelters for the homeless, and shelters for abused women, will last from 6:00 p.m. to midnight on March 20, 1990. We will ask all people staying in shelters that night to answer basic demographic questions. As we do in counting the rest of the population, we will ask additional social and economic questions of a sample of persons in shelters, every one of six persons. Respondents who are capable will complete the forms for themselves; census takers will complete the forms for those who are unable to do so.

Street Enumeration

Street enumeration will occur from 2:00 to 4:00 a.m. on March 21, 1990. We will count all visible persons at pre-identified locations, except persons in uniforms or people engaged in obvious money-making activities other than begging or panhandling.

Census takers will go to abandoned and boarded-up buildings from 4:00 to 6:30 a.m., and wait outside the buildings until someone comes out. They'll try to get the number and characteristics of others inside the building from the first person who comes out of the building. If they don't succeed, they will continue to wait for another person. We have to balance the safety of the census takers and the respondents with the mission of counting people. Census takers will not enter abandoned buildings, climb onto rooftops or check trash dumpsters.

During the street count, census takers will ask only the basic demographic questions. They will not wake sleeping persons to ask them questions. Rather, they will estimate the person's age, sex, and race to the best of their ability. They also will estimate these characteristics for individuals who refuse to answer or cannot answer.

Other Procedures

Doubled-up families, institutionalized persons, people with no usual home living in tents at campgrounds, and other individuals sometimes considered part of the homeless population will be included in the regular or group quarters operations.

In institutions such as local jails, we will not ask if they have a usual home elsewhere. Therefore, homeless persons in institutions will be included in the 1990 census but cannot be identified separately as a component of the homeless population.

No Separate Tabulations Labeled "Homeless"

There is no generally agreed-upon definition of "the homeless," and the Census Bureau won't impose one. We also can't separately identify every component (such as those in jail) and some homeless who stay well hidden. We will tabulate the count and characteristics of the homeless population in each of the selected component settings in which homeless people live. These areas include shelters with sleeping facilities, nonsheltered locations, shelters for abused women, transient sites, maternity homes, and drug/alcohol abuse group homes and detoxification centers.

There will be no separate tabulations entitled "the homeless"; users can add the components they think are appropriate to get their own totals for this population. You'll be able to find statistics on one or more of these components in all four of the 1990 census *Summary Tape Files* and in *General Population Characteristics* (Series 1990 CP-1) and *Social and Economic Characteristics* (Series 1990 CP-2).

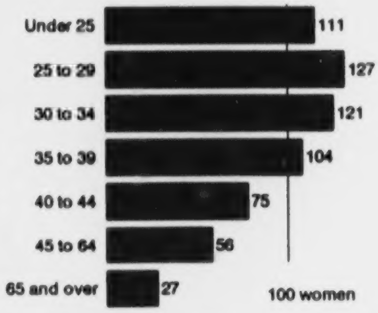
The combined efforts of the Census Bureau and local areas will improve our chances of including the homeless population in the 1990 census. For more information, contact Cynthia Taeuber, Population Division (301/763-7883), or Tom Jones, Office of the Assistant Director for Decennial Censuses (763-4070). ◆

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Census and You, November 1989. P.4.

PROFILES

More Unmarried Men Than Women at Younger Ages

Ratio of Unmarried Men Per 100 Unmarried Women: 1988



Source: "Singleness in America," Studies in Marriage and the Family

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A Booklet Worth Reading

Making Sense of School Budgets: A Citizen's Guide To Local Public Education Spending. Prepared by Susan Perkins Weston. 46 pages. August 1989. U.S. Department of Education, Washington DC 20208-5572. Office of Educational Research and Improvement. Programs for the Improvement of Practice.

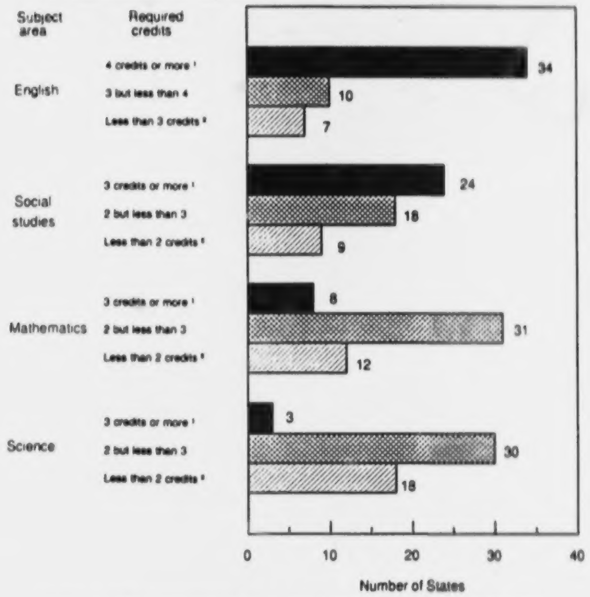
What Is Infrastructure?

The Council chose to study nine categories of public works infrastructure: highways, streets, roads and bridges; airports and airways; public transit; intermodal transportation (focusing on the interfaces between individual modes); water supply; wastewater treatment; water resource; solid waste; and hazardous waste services. These categories have strong links to economic development and, except for the last, a tradition of direct public-sector involvement. The facilities have high fixed costs and long economic lives. Because of the lack of comparable data, a discussion of intermodal transportation is not always included in category comparisons.

The nation's infrastructure comprises far more than the categories studied directly by the Council. Others include communications, power production facilities, railroads (which are largely private), schools, public housing, sidewalks, lighting, hospitals, public buildings, parks, and prisons. Taken as a whole, the services they provide form the underpinnings of our nation's defense, a strong economy and our health and safety....

National Council on Public Works Improvement, February 1988. Final Report to the Presdient and Congress. Fragile Foundations: A Report on America's Public Works . P.33.

Number of Course Credits Required by States for High School Graduation, Selected Subjects: 1988



[1] Number of credits recommended by the National Commission on Excellence in Education

[2] Includes those States with no requirements in the subject.

SOURCE: Council of Chief State School Officers, 1988 Policies and Practices Questionnaire

U.S. Department of Education. Office of Educational Research and Improvement. The Condition of Education 1989. Volume 1. Elementary and Secondary Education.

What A 5% Reduction in World Military Budgets Could Buy

	$ billion
Environmental clean-up of nuclear bomb plants	$20.0
Safe water and sanitation	12.0
Maternal health and education	6.0
Research	5.0
Supplementary feeding programs	3.0
Community health posts: a primary care network	1.3
Immunization for all children	1.0
Reliable technology	0.8
Funding the World Health Organization	0.7
Education and information	0.2
	$50.0 billion

Ruth Leger Sivard's World Military and Social Expenditures 1989 (13th Edition). Page 43.

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF THE 98 NEW NATIONS IN THE WORLD SINCE 1943

In this survey, the term "nation" refers to a people politically organized into a sovereign state with a definite territory. The number of such nations has more than doubled since the end of World War II. On the eve of the war there were 70 nations; by September 1989, there were 171. This count includes the Federated States of Micronesia and also the Marshall Islands, two nations that have signed compacts of free association with the United States in which the United States assumes responsibility for their defence.

Country	Chronology of Sovereignty	Date of Sovereignty
Algeria	47	July 5, 1962
Angola	80	Nov. 11, 1975
Antigua and Barbuda	94	Nov. 1, 1981
Bahamas, The	73	July 10, 1973
Bahrain	69	Aug. 14, 1971
Bangladesh	72	Apr. 4, 1972
Barbados	61	Nov. 30, 1966
Belize	93	Sept. 21, 1981
Benin	28	Aug. 1, 1960
Botswana	59	Sept. 30, 1966
Brunei	96	Jan. 1, 1984
Burkina	30	Aug. 5, 1960
Burma	8	Jan. 4, 1948
Burundi	45	July 1, 1962
Cambodia	14	Nov. 8, 1949
Cameroon	23	Jan. 1, 1960
Cape Verde	77	July 5, 1975
Central African Republic	33	Aug. 13, 1960
Chad	32	Aug. 11, 1960
Comoros	82	Dec. 31, 1975
Congo	34	Aug. 15, 1960
Côte d'Ivoire (Ivory Coast)	31	Aug. 7, 1960
Cyprus	35	Aug. 16, 1960
Djibouti	84	June 27, 1977
Dominica	87	Nov. 3, 1978
Equatorial Guinea	66	Oct. 12, 1968
Fiji	68	Oct. 10, 1970
Gabon	36	Aug. 17, 1960
Gambia, The	55	Feb. 18, 1965
Ghana	20	Mar. 6, 1957
Grenada	74	Feb. 7, 1974
Guinea	22	Oct. 2, 1958
Guinea-Bissau	75	Sept. 10, 1974
Guyana	58	May 26, 1966
Iceland	3	June 17, 1944
India	7	Aug. 15, 1947
Indonesia	15	Dec. 28, 1949
Israel	10	May 15, 1948
Jamaica	48	Aug. 6, 1962
Jordan	4	Mar. 22, 1946
Kenya	51	Dec. 12, 1963
Kiribati	89	July 12, 1979
Korea	11	Aug. 15, 1948
Kuwait	42	June 19, 1961
Laos	13	July 19, 1949
Lebanon	1	Nov. 22, 1943
Lesotho	60	Oct. 4, 1966
Libya	16	Dec. 24, 1951
Madagascar	25	June 27, 1960
Malawi	52	July 6, 1964
Malaysia	21	Aug. 31, 1957
Maldives	56	July 26, 1965
Mali	38	Sept. 22, 1960
Malta	53	Sept. 21, 1964
Marshall Islands	97	Oct. 21, 1986
Mauritania	40	Nov. 28, 1960
Mauritius	64	Mar. 12, 1968
Micronesia, Federated States of	98	Nov. 3, 1986
Morocco	18	Mar. 2, 1956
Mozambique	76	June 25, 1975
Nauru	63	Jan. 31, 1968
Niger	29	Aug. 3, 1960
Nigeria	39	Oct. 1, 1960
Pakistan	6	Aug. 14, 1947
Papua New Guinea	79	Sept. 16, 1975
Philippines	5	July 4, 1946
Qatar	70	Sept. 3, 1971
Rwanda	46	July 1, 1962
Saint Kitts and Nevis	95	Sept. 19, 1983
Saint Lucia	88	Feb. 22, 1979
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	90	Oct. 27, 1979
Sao Tome and Principe	78	July 12, 1975
Senegal	37	Aug. 20, 1960
Seychelles	83	June 28, 1976
Sierra Leone	41	Apr. 27, 1961
Singapore	57	Aug. 9, 1965
Solomon Islands	85	July 7, 1978
Somalia	27	July 1, 1960
Sri Lanka	9	Feb. 4, 1948
Sudan	17	Jan. 1, 1956
Suriname	81	Nov. 25, 1975
Swaziland	65	Sept. 6, 1968
Syria	2	Jan. 1, 1944
Tanzania	43	Dec. 9, 1961
Togo	24	Apr. 27, 1960
Tonga	67	June 4, 1970
Trinidad and Tobago	49	Aug. 31, 1962
Tunisia	19	Mar. 20, 1956
Tuvalu	86	Oct. 1, 1978
Uganda	50	Oct. 9, 1962
United Arab Emirates	71	Dec. 2, 1971
Vanuatu	92	July 30, 1980
Vietnam	12	Mar. 8, 1949
Western Samoa	44	Jan. 1, 1962
Yemen (South)	62	Nov. 30, 1967
Zaire	26	June 30, 1960
Zambia	54	Oct. 24, 1964
Zimbabwe	91	Apr. 18, 1980

Source: U.S. Department of State. Geographic Notes No. 10, September 1, 1989. Status of the World's Nations. Received November 24, 1989.

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CHRONOLOGICAL LIST OF THE 98 NEW NATIONS IN THE WORLD SINCE 1943

Year	Date	No.	Nation
1943	Nov. 22	1	Lebanon
1944	Jan. 1	2	Syria
	June 17	3	Iceland
1946	Mar. 22	4	Jordan
	July 4	5	Philippines
1947	Aug. 14	6	Pakistan
	Aug. 15	7	India
1948	Jan. 4	8	Burma
	Feb. 4	9	Sri Lanka
	May 15	10	Israel
	Aug. 15	11	Korea
1949	Mar. 8	12	Vietnam
	July 19	13	Laos
	Nov. 8	14	Cambodia
	Dec. 28	15	Indonesia
1951	Dec. 24	16	Libya
1956	Jan. 1	17	Sudan
	Mar. 2	18	Morocco
	Mar. 20	19	Tunisia
1957	Mar. 6	20	Ghana
	Aug. 31	21	Malaysia
1958	Oct. 2	22	Guinea
1960	Jan. 1	23	Cameroon
	Apr. 27	24	Togo
	June 27	25	Madagascar
	June 30	26	Zaire
	July 1	27	Somalia
	Aug. 1	28	Benin
	Aug. 3	29	Niger
	Aug. 5	30	Burkina
	Aug. 7	31	Côte d'Ivoire
	Aug. 11	32	Chad
	Aug. 13	33	Central African Republic
	Aug. 15	34	Congo
	Aug. 16	35	Cyprus
	Aug. 17	36	Gabon
	Aug. 20	37	Senegal
	Sept. 22	38	Mali
	Oct. 1	39	Nigeria
	Nov. 28	40	Mauritania
1961	Apr. 27	41	Sierra Leone
	June 19	42	Kuwait
	Dec. 9	43	Tanzania
1962	Jan. 1	44	Western Samoa
	July 1	45	Burundi
	July 1	46	Rwanda
	July 5	47	Algeria
	Aug. 6	48	Jamaica
	Aug. 31	49	Trinidad and Tobago
	Oct. 9	50	Uganda
1963	Dec. 12	51	Kenya
1964	July 6	52	Malawi
	Sept. 21	53	Malta
	Oct. 24	54	Zambia
1965	Feb. 18	55	Gambia, The
	July 26	56	Maldives
	Aug. 9	57	Singapore
1966	May 26	58	Guyana
	Sept. 30	59	Botswana
	Oct. 4	60	Lesotho
	Nov. 30	61	Barbados
1967	Nov. 30	62	Yemen (South)
1968	Jan. 31	63	Nauru
	Mar. 12	64	Mauritius
	Sept. 6	65	Swaziland
	Oct. 12	66	Equatorial Guinea
1970	June 4	67	Tonga
	Oct. 10	68	Fiji
1971	Aug. 14	69	Bahrain
	Sept. 3	70	Qatar
	Dec. 2	71	United Arab Emirates
1972	Apr. 4	72	Bangladesh
1973	July 10	73	Bahamas, The
1974	Feb. 7	74	Grenada
	Sept. 10	75	Guinea-Bissau
1975	June 25	76	Mozambique
	July 5	77	Cape Verde
	July 12	78	Sao Tome and Principe
	Sept. 16	79	Papua New Guinea
	Nov. 11	80	Angola
	Nov. 25	81	Suriname
	Dec. 31	82	Comoros
1976	June 28	83	Seychelles
1977	June 27	84	Djibouti
1978	July 7	85	Solomon Islands
	Oct. 1	86	Tuvalu
	Nov. 3	87	Dominica
1979	Feb. 22	88	Saint Lucia
	July 12	89	Kiribati
	Oct. 27	90	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
1980	Apr. 18	91	Zimbabwe
	July 30	92	Vanuatu
1981	Sept. 21	93	Belize
	Nov. 1	94	Antigua and Barbuda
1983	Sept. 19	95	Saint Kitts and Nevis
1984	Jan. 1	96	Brunei
1986	Oct. 21	97	Marshall Islands
	Nov. 3	98	Micronesia, Federated States of

Source: U.S. Department of State. Geographic Notes No. 10, September 1, 1989. Status of the World's Nations. Received November 24, 1989.

BATTLING AMERICA'S BUDGET DEFICITS

The headline above is the title of a 44-page booklet, c 1989, issued by the Committee for Economic Development, 477 Madison Avenue, New York NY 10022. (Telephone (212) 688-2063) Price $7.50. The material on the next four pages here are from that booklet.

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The Committee for Economic Development is composed of about 250 Trustees, most of whom are presidents or board chairmen of corporations or presidents of universities. With the help of advisory boards made up of distinguished scholars, the Trustees work together to conduct research and formulate policy recommendations on major economic issues and to promote an understanding of the operation of the American economy. CED's policy statements are issued by its Research and Policy Committee, which is composed of 60 Trustees.

CED's objectives are to contribute to preserving and strengthening our free society, achieving steady economic growth at high employment and reasonably stable prices, increasing productivity and living standards, providing greater and more equal opportunity for every citizen, and improving the quality of life for all.

CED's bylaws emphasize that its work must be thoroughly objective in character and that each issue must be approached, not from the viewpoint of any particular economic or political group, but from that of the general welfare.

Thus, CED unites scholarship with business judgment and experience in analyzing issues and developing recommendations to resolve the economic problems that arise constantly in a dynamic and democratic society.

CED is supported largely by voluntary contributions from business and industry, foundations, and individuals. It is nonprofit, nonpartisan, and nonpolitical.

A CALL FOR ACTION

The persistence of huge federal budget deficits remains this country's number-one economic policy problem.

This past spring was the latest in a series of opportunities where our political leaders were unable to decisively resolve the deficit issue. Last April, after weeks of negotiations, Administration and Congressional leaders produced the Bipartisan Budget Agreement for fiscal year 1990. Unfortunately, this Agreement dodged the important budgetary issues and made little substantive and lasting improvement in the outlook for the deficit.

We are now approaching another crossroad: both the fiscal 1990 Agreement needs to be implemented and negotiations will soon be proceeding on the budget for fiscal 1991. It is imperative that we do not miss these opportunities to put fiscal policy on a more sensible course. Smoke and mirrors and hollow promises will not do the trick. The failure to deal adequately with our immense federal budget deficits has already directly and indirectly damaged the ability of America to fully meet and beat competition from abroad, and it is gradually but relentlessly reducing the prospects for further improvement in the living standards of our citizens.

We must act decisively and swiftly to eliminate the structural budget deficits before the damage they cause becomes irreparable. The latest budget projections indicate that the deficit will decline little, if at all, in the coming years, even if the economy continues to operate at near-capacity levels. Moreover, these projections underestimate the true size of the deficit problem because they include the growing Social Security reserve, which will be needed to meet the nation's obligations to future retirees. Without dramatic change, the federal deficit will continue to absorb the lion's share of private domestic saving, thereby limiting funds for productive investment and forcing relatively high interest rates in order to attract foreign capital to finance investment needs.

The case for reducing the federal budget deficit is well understood within the government. The problem is not the economic realities, but shortsighted political objectives, ideological divisions, and arguments about who should bear the pain. As described in this program statement and in other recent policy statements, CED believes there are practical and equitable steps that can be taken to reduce the deficit. But each of these steps carries political baggage that alienates particular constituencies who focus almost exclusively on their immediate needs. In many cases, special interests have been able to virtually guarantee the rejection of reasonable budget proposals.

What is needed in these circumstances is political leadership to overcome the demands of narrow interest groups and short-term priorities of public officials and their constituents. It is imperative that our leaders look beyond short-run expediencies and forge a bipartisan and comprehensive consensus to deal with the deficit before the deficit damages the economy further. **We call upon the leaders in Congress and the Administration to come together promptly on a program for decisive and substantial deficit reduction.** Both sides must agree to share the pain as well as the blame and focus on the benefits of solving this problem. Creating such a deal will not be easy, but without one there is little hope for real deficit reduction. They must face the challenge of making hard and politically unpopular choices, so that the nation's future will be brighter.

continued

AMERICA'S BUDGET DEFICITS continued

WHERE WE (CED) STAND

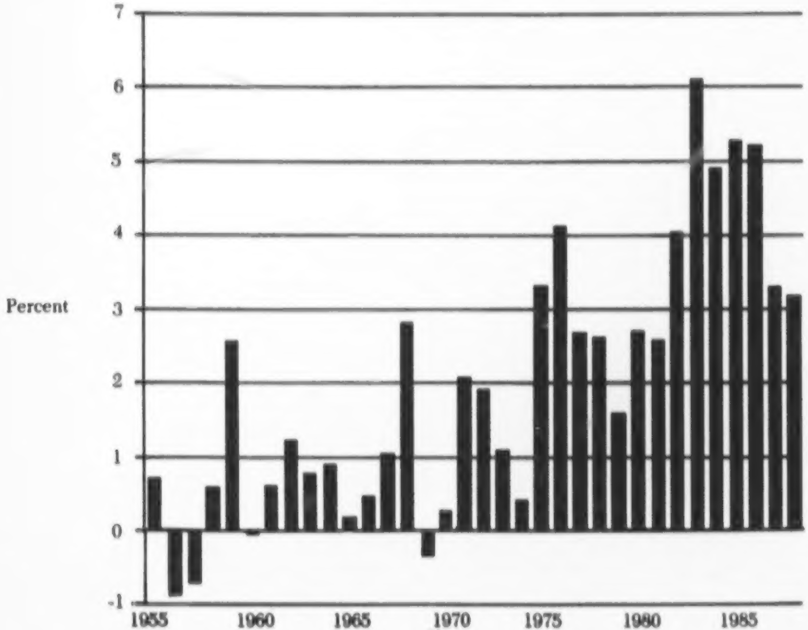
The United States is a prosperous nation enjoying the world's highest standard of living while providing a worldwide example of the benefits of political and economic freedom. But our economic prosperity and our position as world leader have been progressively eroded by a serious economic shortcoming of our own doing. It is the decline in our national saving in both its private and its public components. Although private saving behavior is neither clearly understood nor easily influenced, the source of public-sector dissaving is easily identified as the lack of sufficient political will to permit decisive action to eliminate the record peacetime federal budget deficits that emerged in this decade.

For the last three decades, with the exception of one year, the U.S. government has habitually spent more than it has taken in. In the 1960s and early 1970s, the deficits were generally not very large except during recessions. The huge debt burden accumulated in World War II declined in most of this period, as the federal debt held by the public fell from 46.7 percent of gross national product (GNP) in fiscal 1960 to 26.1 percent of GNP in fiscal 1979. But in the years that followed, all vestiges of fiscal discipline seemed to collapse. In the 1980s, federal deficits relative to GNP rose to record peacetime levels (see Figure 1), and the federal debt held by the public more than tripled, rising to nearly 43 percent of GNP by the end of fiscal 1988 (see Figure 2).

The persistent budget deficits of the 1980s have already had many adverse economic effects: (1) the huge increase in borrowing by the U.S. Treasury combined with low private saving produced high real interest costs that constrained domestic capital investment; (2) relatively high domestic interest rates attracted capital from abroad, which in turn drove up the dollar in international exchange markets, making U.S. producers less competitive and creating record trade deficits; (3) the deficits caused domestic demand to grow more rapidly than the capacity to produce, thereby raising inflationary pressures; and (4) the rising government debt and higher interest rates caused explosive growth in federal interest payments, with an increasing share going beyond our borders. These developments threaten the well-being of both current and future generations of Americans. Slowly but surely, the huge federal budget deficits are eroding our productive national wealth by crowding out domestic capital formation and by adding to the nation's international liabilities.

In addition, the rising federal debt and the U.S. debt to foreigners place constraints on the ability of domestic monetary and fiscal authorities to effectively deal with fluctuations in economic activity and with inflationary pressure. They must be concerned about the impact of their policies not only on domestic demand but also on international movements of capital, the value of the dollar, and the international competitiveness of domestic industry. Many experts also believe that the existing budget deficits greatly limit the ability of the federal government to use fiscal policy as a stabilizing force during a recession, because a further rise in the deficit could cause domestic and foreign investors to lose confidence in the economic policies of the U.S. government.

Figure 1 United States Federal Budget Deficit
(as a percentage of GNP)

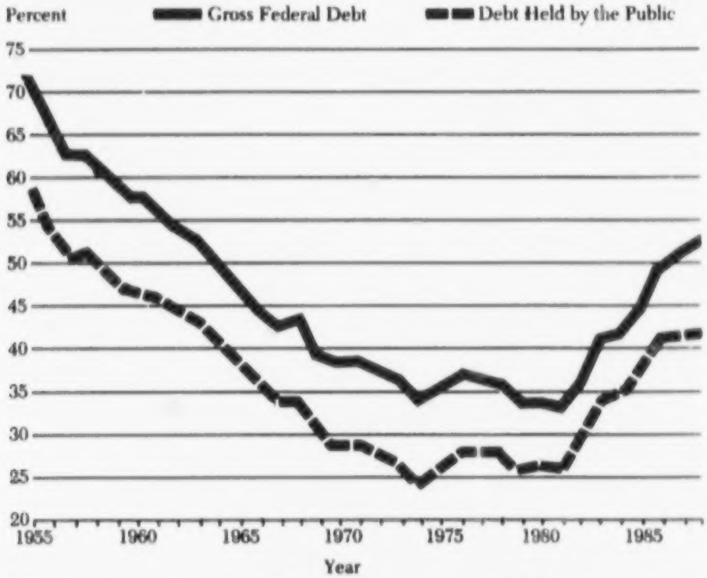


continued

AMERICAN BUDGET DEFICITS continued

Figure 2 Gross Federal Debt and Federal Debt Held by the Public

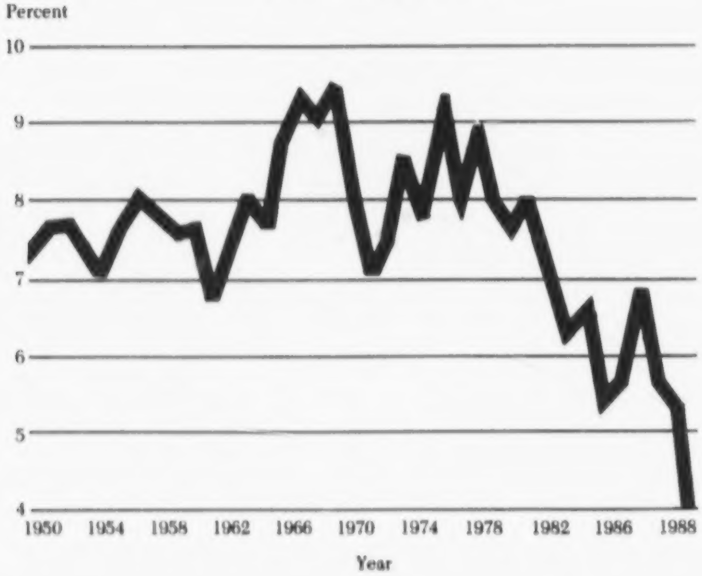
(as a percentage of GNP)



Gross Federal Debt is comprised of federal debt securities held by the public and federal debt held by the federal government itself. Government accounts that hold federal debt are predominantly social insurance and retirement trust funds, including Social Security. Federal Debt Held by the Public is simply gross federal debt less debt held in federal government accounts.

Figure 3 U.S. Net Private Saving

(as a Percentage of GNP)



continued

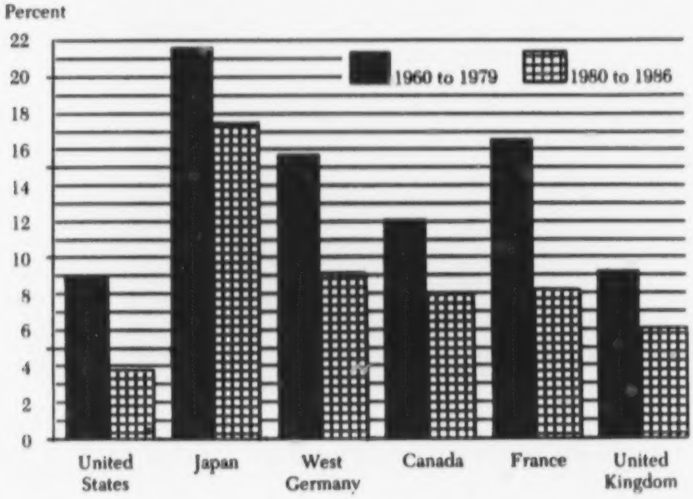
THE FEDERAL BUDGET AND NATIONAL SAVING

National saving is the combined saving of the private and public sectors of the U.S. economy -- the total amount of domestic saving available for national investment. The federal budget deficits (dissaving) absorb private saving, leaving less for private investment. If the United States had a high rate of private saving, as Japan does, large budget deficits could be financed without starving private investment and without our becoming dependent on borrowing from abroad. But private saving rates declined sharply in the United States during the 1980s, just as budget deficits rose to record levels (see Figure 3). Net private saving, which is composed of personal saving and retained corporate earnings, averaged about 8 percent of GNP in the earlier postwar years but declined sharply in this decade to less than 5 percent in the 1986-1988 period.

In the two decades before 1980, federal deficits offset about 20 percent of net private saving. This figure rose sharply in the 1980s, reaching more than 80 per percent in the 1986-1988 period. Although the state and local government surplus rose, it offset only a fraction of the decline in saving elsewhere. Thus, domestic saving available for private investment declined sharply from nearly 7.1 percent of GNP in the 1960-1980 period to about 2.1 percent in recent years. Unfortunately, the decline in U.S. saving has occurred at a time when greater domestic saving and investment is called for in order to reduce the Social Security and Medicare burden that will fall on our children early in the next century due to the aging of the population.

Even before the recent decline in the saving rate, the inclination of the private sector to save was much weaker in the United States than in other advanced industrial countries (see Figure 4). Nevertheless, the United States was able to be a supplier of credit to the world prior to the 1980s. Not so today. The spending spree of this decade (i.e., the higher proportion of the national income used for private consumption and government spending) would not be sustained without massive borrowing from abroad..... ◆

Figure 4 National Saving as a Percentage of Gross Domestic Product Annual Averages



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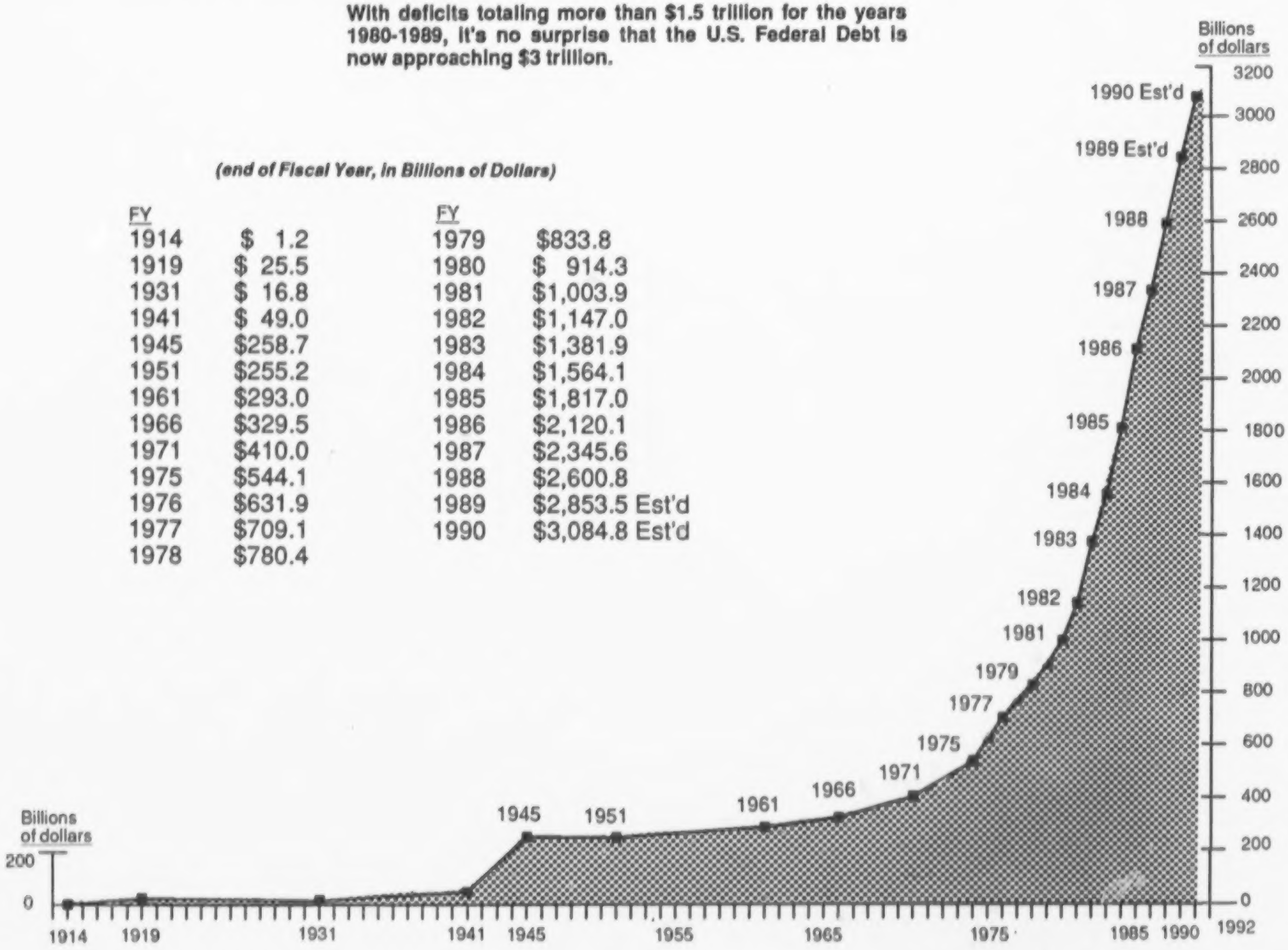
U.S. FEDERAL DEBT APPROACHING $3 TRILLION

With deficits totaling more than $1.5 trillion for the years 1980-1989, it's no surprise that the U.S. Federal Debt is now approaching $3 trillion.

(end of Fiscal Year, in Billions of Dollars)

FY		FY	
1914	$ 1.2	1979	$833.8
1919	$ 25.5	1980	$ 914.3
1931	$ 16.8	1981	$1,003.9
1941	$ 49.0	1982	$1,147.0
1945	$258.7	1983	$1,381.9
1951	$255.2	1984	$1,564.1
1961	$293.0	1985	$1,817.0
1966	$329.5	1986	$2,120.1
1971	$410.0	1987	$2,345.6
1975	$544.1	1988	$2,600.8
1976	$631.9	1989	$2,853.5 Est'd
1977	$709.1	1990	$3,084.8 Est'd
1978	$780.4		



World Eagle Chart.
Figures for 1984-1988 are from The United States Budget in Brief Fiscal Year 1990, January 9, 1989. Table 1.
Estimates for 1989 and 1990 are from Mid-Session Review Of The Budget, July 19, 1989. Table 21. Both publications by Office of Management and Budget.

LATEST ESTIMATES (NOVEMBER 22, 1989) BY THE BUREAU OF THE CENSUS OF THE 50 MOST POPULOUS CITIES IN THE U.S.

The estimates do not include suburbs. Populations and rankings for metropolitan areas, including suburbs, can differ substantially from those for cities.

City and State	Estimate, July 1 1988	Census, April 1, 1980	Census April 1, 1970	-------- Rank -------- 1988	1980	1970
New York NY	7,352,700	7,071,639	7,895,563	1	1	1
Los Angeles CA	3,352,710	2,968,528	2,811,801	2	3	3
Chicago Il	2,977,520	3,005,072	3,369,357	3	2	2
Houston TX	1,698,090	1,595,138	1,233,535	4	5	6
Philadelphia PA	1,647,000	1,688,210	1,949,996	5	4	4
San Diego CA	1,070,310	875,538	697,471	6	8	14
Detroit MI	1,035,920	1,203,369	1,514,063	7	6	5
Dallas TX	987,360	904,599	844,401	8	7	8
San Antonio TX	941,150	785,940	654,153	9	11	15
Phoenix AZ	923,750	789,704	584,303	10	9	20
Baltimore MD	751,400	786,741	905,787	11	10	7
San Jose CA	738,420	629,402	459,913	12	17	29
San Francisco CA	731,600	678,974	715,674	13	13	13
Indianapolis IN	727,130	700,807	736,856	14	12	11
Memphis TN	645,190	646,170	623,988	15	14	17
Jacksonville FL	635,430	540,920	504,265	16	22	26
Washington DC	617,000	638,432	756,668	17	15	9
Milwaukee WI	599,380	636,298	717,372	18	16	12
Boston MA	577,830	562,994	641,071	19	20	16
Columbus OH	569,570	565,032	540,025	20	19	21
New Orleans LA	531,700	557,927	593,471	21	21	19
Cleveland OH	521,370	573,822	750,879	22	18	10
El Paso TX	510,970	425,259	322,261	23	28	45
Seattle WA	502,200	493,846	530,831	24	23	22
Denver CO	492,200	492,694	514,678	25	24	24
Nashville-Davidson TN	481,400	455,651	426,029	26	25	32
Autstin TX	464,690	345,890	253,539	27	42	56
Kansas City MO	438,950	448,028	507,330	28	27	25
Oklahoma City OK	434,380	404,014	368,164	29	31	37
Fort Worth TX	426,610	385,164	393,455	30	33	33
Atlanta GA	420,220	425,022	495,039	31	29	27
Portland OR	418,470	368,146	379,967	32	35	36
Long Beach CA	415,040	361,496	358,879	33	37	40
St. Louis MO	403,700	452,804	622,236	34	26	18
Tucson AZ	385,720	330,537	262,933	35	45	53
Albuquerque NM	378,480	332,336	244,501	36	44	58
Honolulu HI	376,110	367,878	324,871	37	36	44
Pittsburgh PA	375,230	423,960	520,089	38	30	23
Miami FL	371,100	346,681	334,859	39	41	42
Cincinnati OH	370,480	385,410	453,514	40	32	30
Tulsa OK	368,330	360,919	330,350	41	38	43
Charlotte NC	367,860	315,474	241,420	42	47	60
Virginia Beach VA	365,300	262,199	172,106	43	56	77
Oakland CA	356,860	339,337	361,561	44	43	39
Omaha NE	353,170	314,255	346,929	45	48	41
Minneapolis MN	344,670	370,951	434,400	46	34	31
Toledo OH	340,760	354,635	383,062	47	40	34
Sacramento CA	338,220	275,741	257,105	48	52	55
Newark NJ	313,800	329,248	381,930	49	46	35
Buffalo NY	313,570	357,870	462,768	50	39	28

Source: Bureau of the Census, Release
CB 89-182, November 22, 1989.

OPINION

TOWARD MORE SELF-GOVERNANCE AND LESS COMMAND & CONTROL

The following was authored by Robert B. Hawkins, Jr., Chairman of the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations (ACIR) and appeared in that agency's Intergovernmental Perspective, Summer 1989. P. 39.

Ask ten local officials around the country whether they want to put in a solid waste burning facility, and eight will accuse you of being crazy. Ask ten officials if they want to put in a nuclear generating facility, and they will know you are crazy. Yet, in other countries with federal systems these projects are built with relative ease. The reason why this is so is critical to the strength and viability of local governments in the United States.

Every study I have read suggests that we are facing a solid waste crisis. Two factors explain this crisis. First, as a society we are generating more waste. Second, we are running out of landfills. In the next ten years we must find alternatives to at least 50 percent of our landfills. The question is how. This is the policy issue we face.

The most common approach is the old and tried remedy of command and control. In California the state legislature passed a bill, which was vetoed by the governor, that would have mandated on local governments a 25 percent reduction in solid waste. As usual, no money would follow this bill, just mandates.

If the problems stopped here, we would be in relatively good shape. Larger forces are at work, however. Minneapolis passed a solid waste reduction bill that industry found objectionable. Industry's two-fold strategy was to seek legislation preempting local governments and to threaten a federal case, arguing that a multiplicity of local and state ordinances would constitute a restraint on trade and commerce.

Given the Supreme Court's recent rulings in *Garcia* and *Baker*, the response to such a case in all likelihood would be to say that the Congress has the authority to regulate issues of solid waste in the states and local communities.

The net effect of this approach to solving problems is what some call a zero-sum game: everybody loses. Local and state political processes become less productive because these leaders see little benefit from solving problems that will likely be overridden by the various branches of the federal government.

Is there any way out of this process? To answer this question one must look at the incentives in the decisionmaking system that local officials face in trying to solve critical problems. To site a large prison or solid waste facility in a city or county many times requires a local community to take on risks for a larger community. Many times, local communities do not understand or want to take on such risks. Next, local officials face a decisionmaking process that is full of external actors who have standing to delay and ultimately decide whether the project should go forward. In fact, it is ironic that while state and federal officials many times complain about the fragmentation of authority at the local level, it is the fragmentation of state and federal authority that often discourages local officials from being public entrepreneurs in the best sense of that word. Local officials facing these conditions see only pain and suffering from trying to do the right thing. Long delays, court challenges, and stormy public hearings are what local officials can expect from existing processes. Is it any wonder that local officials increasingly shy away from such projects?

In France, local communities bid for the right to site nuclear power plants because the national government, realizing the risk the local communities will take, underwrites the risk with grants of free electricity to the local community. Maybe it's time that we in the United States began to think in these terms.

Maybe we need to provide local political leaders with two critical ingredients to successful political decisionmaking:

> Greater integrity and integration of federal and state decision processes, so that local officials know that the probability of success is much better than chance.
>
> Underwriting risk in the form of cash grants to local communities, so that political leaders have something to offer citizens in return for the siting of needed facilities.

Such an approach, it seems to me, is much preferable to the command and control approach that ultimately turns into shift and shaft. It upholds the integrity of decisionmaking processes and also creates strong incentives for local political processes to solve problems that we as a society need to solve. For we must understand again that political problems are solved not by management but by allowing political processes to build consensus on how they should be solved. We should start taking a hard look at federal policies to determine where they facilitate and where they hinder the emergence of political problem solving. More importantly, it is high time that local officials began to design their own policy options, educating citizens on their importance and getting state and federal leaders to pass the necessary legislation to give us more self-governance and less command and control. ❖

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HOUSING AND NEIGHBORHOOD QUALITY

-- All Housing Units --

[Numbers in thousands. ... means not applicable or sample too small. - means zero or rounds to zero.]

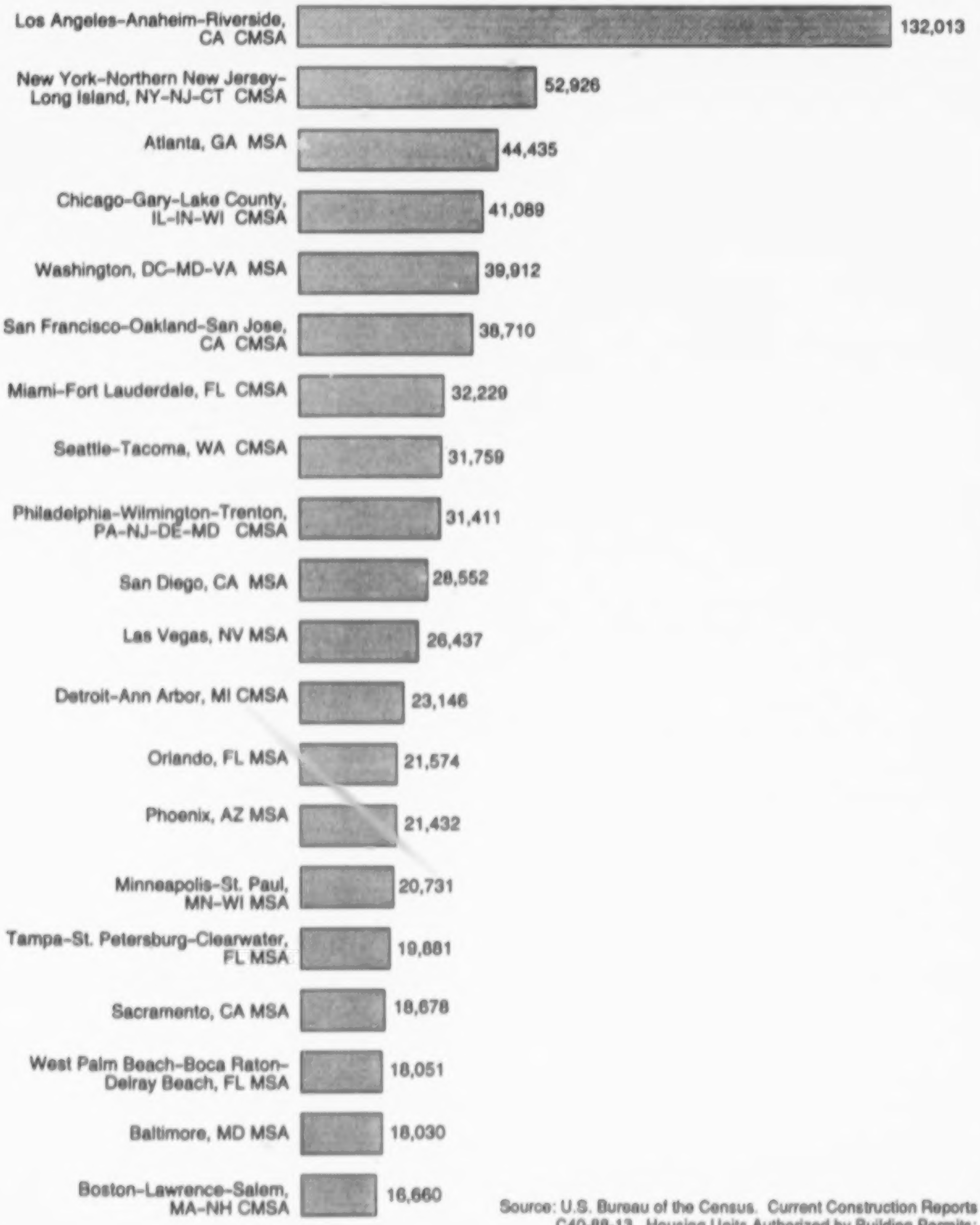
Characteristics	Total housing units	Seasonal	Year-round											New construction 4 yrs	Mobile homes
				Occupied			Vacant								
			Total	Total	Owner	Renter	Total	For rent	Rental vacancy rate	For sale only	Rented or sold	Occasional use/URE	Other vacant		
Total	99 931	3 182	96 749	88 425	56 145	32 280	8 324	2 518	7.2	1 128	895	2 195	1 587	6 971	6 094
Selected Amenities[1]															
Porch, deck, balcony, or patio	71 628	2 119	69 509	64 120	45 569	18 551	5 389	1 478	7.3	822	650	1 529	910	5 502	3 741
Not reported	167	17	150	105	75	31	44	14	30.7	4	-	9	17	-	18
Usable fireplace	27 724	684	27 040	25 353	21 674	3 679	1 687	275	6.6	379	231	585	217	2 812	358
Seperate dining room	36 740	461	36 280	34 164	26 496	7 668	2 115	488	5.9	440	319	486	383	2 107	786
With 2 or more living rooms or recreation rooms, etc.	29 844	355	29 490	28 228	24 920	3 307	1 262	157	4.5	335	189	366	215	1 782	711
Garage or carport included with home	51 263	877	50 386	48 727	39 367	9 360	1 659	620	6.2	410	382	247	-	3 383	1 237
Not included	44 569	2 295	42 274	39 265	16 414	22 851	3 009	1 846	7.4	283	464	416	-	3 201	4 405
Offstreet parking included	33 521	2 020	31 501	29 164	13 517	15 647	2 337	1 430	8.3	181	377	349	-	3 002	4 000
Offstreet parking not reported	563	9	555	521	122	399	33	16	3.8	9	6	2	-	39	21
Garage or carport not reported	1 001	10	991	433	364	69	559	53	42.1	455	49	2	-	143	87
Owner or Manager on Property															
Rental, multiunit[2]	23 643	...	23 610	21 173	...	21 173	2 436	1 822	7.8	...	269	345	...	1 832	...
Owner or manager lives on property	9 520	...	9 510	8 279	...	8 279	1 231	873	9.4	...	155	202	...	961	...
Neither owner nor manager lives on property	14 123	...	14 100	12 894	...	12 894	1 206	949	6.8	...	114	143	...	871	...
Selected Deficiencies[1]															
Holes in floors	1 883	71	1 812	1 483	475	1 007	330	73	6.7	27	20	36	174	39	157
Open cracks or holes (interior)	6 573	186	6 386	5 572	2 009	3 563	815	185	4.9	87	56	117	371	118	218
Broken plaster or peeling paint (interior)	6 017	141	5 876	4 992	1 955	3 037	884	194	6.0	112	55	108	415	40	115
No electrical wiring	122	65	56	17	10	7	39	-	-	-	-	21	18	5	5
Exposed wiring	2 377	137	2 239	2 009	904	1 105	230	40	3.5	19	10	54	108	87	70
Rooms without electric outlets	2 940	129	2 811	2 502	1 210	1 292	309	55	4.0	22	28	36	169	89	83
Description of Area Within 300 Feet[1]															
Single-family detached houses	69 856	1 937	67 918	63 061	46 082	16 979	4 856	1 226	6.7	786	574	1 224	1 047	3 858	2 416
Only single-family detached	15 963	565	15 398	14 342	12 130	2 213	1 056	149	6.2	209	126	321	250	971	-
Single-family attached or 1 to 3 story multiunit	28 944	418	28 525	25 548	7 502	18 046	2 978	1 426	7.3	262	289	583	418	2 599	152
4 to 6 story multiunit	5 582	233	5 349	4 733	816	3 916	616	262	6.2	26	67	185	76	207	23
7 stories or more multiunit	2 705	175	2 529	2 237	429	1 808	292	86	4.5	12	32	120	43	73	10
Mobile homes	8 064	782	7 283	6 489	5 182	1 307	793	118	8.2	123	72	301	179	885	4 370
Residential parking lots	17 961	266	17 694	15 983	6 466	9 517	1 711	756	7.4	147	170	294	344	746	667
Commercial, institutional, or industrial	8 117	229	7 887	6 893	1 321	5 572	995	475	7.8	50	112	244	113	846	103
Body of water	4 673	1 138	3 534	2 860	1 938	923	674	123	11.8	57	38	384	72	385	300
Open space, park, farm, or ranch	27 621	1 474	26 146	23 548	16 521	7 026	2 599	537	7.0	324	246	903	589	2 666	2 920
Other	3 953	104	3 849	3 498	1 868	1 630	351	98	5.7	27	42	82	102	232	229
Not observed or not reported	659	47	612	463	256	208	149	41	16.1	11	17	46	34	44	62
Age of Other Residential Buildings Within 300 Feet															
Older	6 241	172	6 069	5 468	3 017	2 451	601	192	7.2	78	61	154	116	1 185	908
About the same	88 292	1 629	86 662	81 689	59 514	22 175	4 974	1 659	6.9	748	628	1 144	794	4 392	2 353
Newer	4 482	201	4 281	3 757	2 385	1 371	524	101	6.8	51	50	161	161	60	256
Very mixed	13 446	846	12 600	11 262	6 894	4 368	1 338	359	7.5	154	102	443	279	800	1 870
No other residential buildings	6 208	261	5 947	5 279	3 761	1 518	668	139	8.3	79	35	226	188	430	578
Not reported	1 242	53	1 189	971	575	397	218	67	14.2	18	19	65	49	104	128
Mobile Homes in Group															
Mobile homes	6 094	698	5 396	4 754	3 906	848	642	79	8.4	105	56	263	140	1 003	6 094
1 to 6	3 145	243	2 902	2 536	2 011	525	366	33	5.9	46	22	145	120	472	3 145
7 to 20	362	48	314	284	191	92	30	12	11.5	5	2	9	2	64	362
21 or more	2 587	407	2 180	1 934	1 703	230	246	33	12.4	54	32	108	18	467	2 587
Other Buildings Vandalized or With Interior Exposed															
None	88 506	2 775	85 731	78 664	49 998	28 666	7 067	2 187	7.0	986	815	1 859	1 220	6 348	5 188
1 building	1 607	23	1 584	1 407	764	644	176	69	9.6	17	11	19	60	37	126
More than 1 building	2 085	26	2 059	1 806	571	1 235	253	116	8.6	19	9	29	80	31	81
No buildings within 300 feet	5 331	271	5 060	4 529	3 566	963	530	76	7.3	66	18	212	158	385	527
Not reported	2 402	87	2 315	2 018	1 246	772	297	70	8.1	40	43	76	69	170	172
Bars on Windows of Buildings															
With other buildings within 300 feet	92 197	2 824	89 373	81 877	51 333	30 544	7 496	2 372	7.1	1 022	834	1 908	1 360	6 416	5 395
No bars on windows	85 235	2 783	82 452	75 512	48 336	27 176	6 940	2 152	7.3	952	783	1 836	1 216	6 251	5 329
1 building with bars	1 547	7	1 540	1 396	848	548	144	44	7.4	10	16	26	47	45	24
2 or more buildings with bars	5 050	29	5 021	4 637	1 969	2 668	384	170	6.0	56	35	43	80	109	35
Not reported	366	6	360	332	180	152	28	5	3.3	4	-	3	16	11	7
Condition of Streets															
No repairs needed	61 438	1 499	59 939	55 100	35 939	19 161	4 839	1 524	7.3	716	569	1 225	806	4 618	2 475
Minor repairs needed	29 314	884	28 429	25 987	15 185	10 802	2 442	787	6.7	299	245	588	523	1 618	2 335
Major repairs needed	5 773	425	5 348	4 773	3 192	1 581	575	128	7.4	65	44	197	141	487	983
No streets within 300 feet	2 391	312	2 079	1 789	1 366	423	289	29	6.3	32	21	135	73	187	223
Not reported	1 015	62	953	775	463	312	178	50	13.6	17	17	50	44	61	78
Trash, Litter, or Junk on Streets or any Properties															
None	71 171	2 618	68 553	62 902	43 229	19 673	5 651	1 523	7.1	825	658	1 707	937	5 454	3 796
Minor accumulation	24 522	451	24 071	21 914	11 183	10 732	2 157	823	7.1	254	205	391	484	1 352	1 907
Major accumulation	3 361	48	3 313	2 968	1 344	1 625	345	123	7.0	33	19	47	123	108	314
Not reported	876	65	812	641	390	250	171	48	15.8	16	15	50	43	57	77

[1] Figures may not add to total because more than one category may apply to a unit

[2] Two or more units of any tenure in the structure

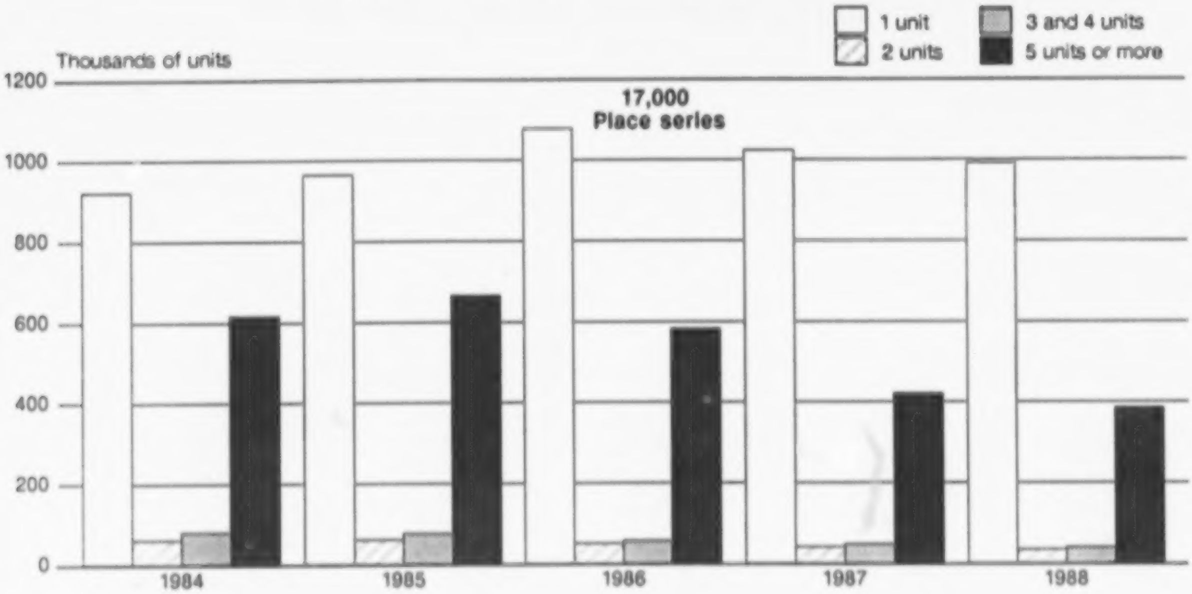
Source; U.S. Bureau of the Census. Also: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Current Housing Reports H-150-85. American Housing Survey For the United States in 1985. December 1988. (Received April 4, 1989.) Table 1-6.

NEW, PRIVATELY-OWNED HOUSING UNITS AUTHORIZED BY BUILDING PERMITS: TOP 20 CMSA's/MSA's, YEAR 1988

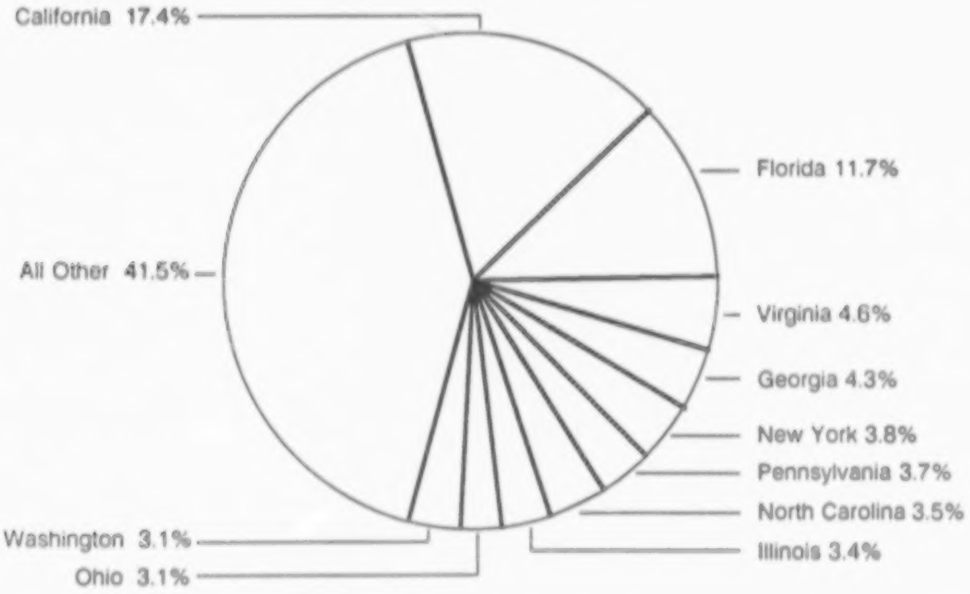


Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Construction Reports C40-88-13. Housing Units Authorized by Building Permits: Annual 1988. P.5.

NEW, PRIVATELY-OWNED HOUSING UNITS AUTHORIZED BY BUILDING PERMITS: BY NUMBER OF UNITS IN STRUCTURE, YEARS 1984-1988



NEW, PRIVATELY-OWNED HOUSING UNITS AUTHORIZED BY BUILDING PERMITS: BY STATES, YEAR 1988



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Construction Reports C40-88-13. Housing Units Authorized by Building Permits: Annual 1988. P.3.

CHARACTERISTICS OF U.S. HOUSING COMPLETED IN 1988

One-Family Houses

The average size of the estimated 1,083,000 new one-family houses completed in 1988 was 1,995 square feet. This is 90 (+/-22) square feet more than the average size of those completed in 1987 according to statistics released today [April 20, 1989] by the U.S. Commerce Department's Bureau of the Census and the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. In 5 years, the average size of newly competed houses has increased by 215 (+/-56) square feet.

Larger percentages of houses completed in 1988 had central air conditioning, 2-1/2 bathrooms or more, four bedrooms or more, and one fireplace or more. Gas continued to be the predominant type of heating fuel.

Units in Buildings with Two Units or More

The average size of the estimated 445,000 units in multifamily buildings completed during 1988 was only slightly larger than those completed in 1987. The switch to gas from electricity as principal heating fuel continued. In the past 5 years, the percentage of newly completed units using gas heat has risen 18 (+/-4) percentage points. In the same period use of electric heat has declined 19 (+/-5) percentage points.

Notes

The statistics in this release are preliminary estimates obtained from sample surveys.

Whenever a statement such as "an increase of 3 (+/-4) percent" appears in the text, this indicates a range from -1 to +7 percent. All ranges given are 90-percent confidence intervals.

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF NEW ONE-FAMILY HOUSES COMPLETED 1984 TO 1988

(Percents computed from unrounded figures)

	Percent Distribution				
Characteristic	1988(p)	1987	1986	1985	1984
Total completed	100	100	100	100	100
Central air conditioning:					
Installed	75	71	69	70	71
Not installed	25	29	31	30	29
Bathrooms:					
1 bathroom	8	10	10	13	14
1-1/2 bathrooms	7	7	9	11	10
2 bathrooms	44	45	47	48	48
2-1/2 bathrooms or more	42	38	33	29	28

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. CENDATA 11.14.1--April 20, 1989.

continued

TABLE continued

Bedrooms:					
2 bedrooms or less	17	19	21	25	24
3 bedrooms	57	58	59	57	58
4 bedrooms or more	26	23	20	18	18
Exterior wall material:(1)					
Brick	17	18	20	22	26
Wood or wood products	42	41	43	43	42
Stucco	16	15	13	14	13
Aluminum siding	8	9	9	10	9
Other types(2)	18	17	14	12	9
Fireplaces:					
No fireplace	35	38	38	41	41
1 fireplace or more	65	62	62	59	59
Foundation:					
Full or partial basement	39	39	37	35	32
Slab	42	43	45	48	50
Crawl space	19	18	18	18	18
Heating fuel:(1)					
Gas	54	52	47	44	45
Electricity	37	40	44	49	48
Oil	5	5	5	3	2
Other types	3	3	4	4	5
Heating system:(1)					
Warm-air furnace	60	57	54	54	55
Electric heat pump	26	27	29	30	30
Hot water or steam	7	7	7	5	
Built-in electric	4	5	6	6	6
Other types	4	4	5	4	5
Parking facility:					
Garage: one car	12	14	14	15	14
Garage: two cars or more	66	65	60	55	56
Carport	3	3	4	5	5
No garage or carport	18	18	21	25	25
Square feet of floor area :					
Under 1,000	4	4	6	6	6
1,000 to 1,199	8	9	11	14	13
1,200 to 1,599	25	27	30	30	30
1,600 to 1,999	22	22	21	21	21
2,000 to 2,399	16	16	14	12	12
2,400 and over	25	21	18	17	17

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Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. CENDATA 11.14.3--April 20, 1989.

COMPONENT SHARES OF TOTAL ANNUAL U.S. CONSUMER EXPENDITURES

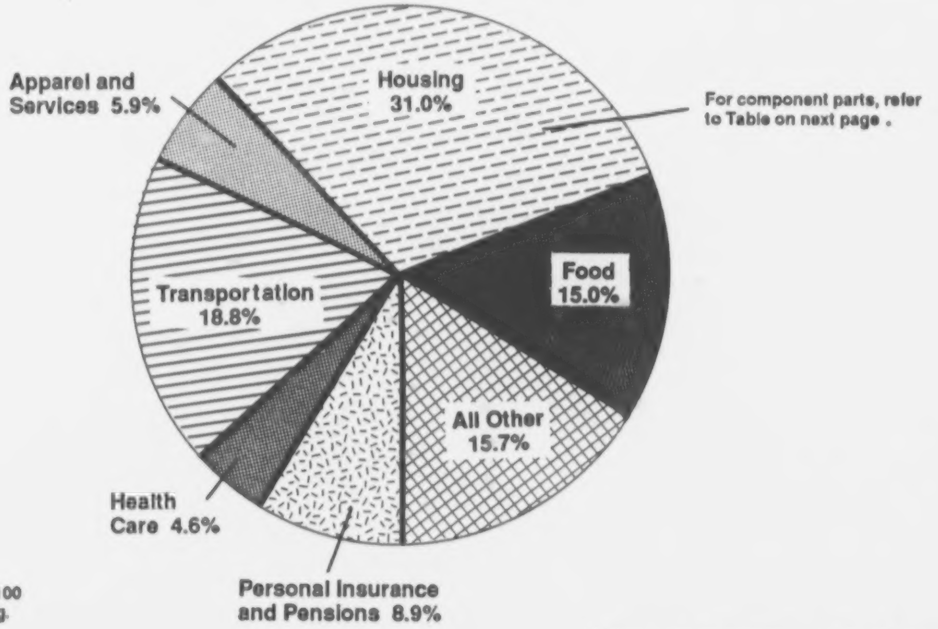
— From Consumer Expenditure Survey, 1984-1987 —

Item	1984	1985	1986	1987
Total expenditures	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Food	15.0	14.8	14.4	15.0
Food at home	9.0	8.7	8.4	8.6
Food away from home	6.0	6.1	6.1	6.4
Housing	30.4	30.2	30.6	31.0
Apparel and services	6.0	6.0	5.6	5.9
Transportation	19.6	19.5	20.3	18.8
Vehicles	8.3	8.7	9.8	8.3
Gasoline and motor oil	4.8	4.4	3.8	3.6
Other transportation	6.5	6.4	6.7	6.9
Health care	4.8	4.7	4.8	4.6
Personal insurance and pensions	8.6	8.6	8.9	8.9
Life and other personal insurance	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2
Retirement, pensions, and social security	7.3	7.4	7.7	7.7
All other *	15.6	16.2	15.4	15.7

Data in this table are not comparable to those in previously issued news releases which show information from the Interview survey separately from the Diary survey.

* Includes alcoholic beverages, entertainment, personal care, reading, education, tobacco and smoking supplies, miscellaneous expenditures, and cash contributions.

Year 1987



Percent does not total 100 due to internal rounding.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor Press Release USDL 89-330, July 6, 1989.

continued →

ANNUAL EXPENDITURES FOR THE MORE THAN 94 MILLION CONSUMER UNITS IN THE U.S.

-- also percent changes --

-- From Consumer Expenditure Survey and Consumer Price Index Changes, 1986-1987 --

Item	1986	1987	Percent change	
			CE Survey	CPI
Number of consumer units (in thousands)	94,044	94,150	0.1	
Income before taxes [2]	$25,460	$27,326	7.3	
Income after taxes [2]	23,172	24,871	7.3	
Average number of persons in consumer unit	2.6	2.6		
Average age of reference person	46.7	47.0		
Average number in consumer unit:				
Earners	1.4	1.4		
Vehicles	2.0	2.0		
Children under 18	.7	.7		
Persons 65 and over	.3	.3		
Average annual expenditures	$23,866	$24,414	2.3	
Food	3,448	3,664	6.3	4.1
Food at home	1,993	2,099	5.3	4.3
Cereal and bakery products	275	299	8.7	3.5
Meat, poultry, fish & eggs	562	572	1.8	5.7
Dairy products	251	274	9.2	2.5
Fruits and vegetables	320	356	11.3	8.9
Other food at home	554	598	7.9	1.0
Food prepared on trips	31	31	0.0	
Food away from home	1,455	1,565	7.6	4.0
Alcoholic beverages	271	289	6.6	2.7
Housing	7,292	7,569	3.8	
Shelter	3,979	4,154	4.4	
Utilities, fuels & public services	1,645	1,671	1.6	-1.1
Household operations	354	371	4.8	1.9
Housekeeping supplies	316	341	7.9	3.0
Housefurnishings & equipment	998	1,032	3.4	1.4
Apparel and services	1,346	1,446	7.4	4.4
Transportation	4,842	4,600	-5.0	3.0
Vehicle purchases	2,338	2,022	-13.5	3.7
Gasoline and motor oil	915	888	-3.0	4.0
Other vehicle expenses	1,342	1,417	5.6	5.0
Public transportation	248	273	10.1	3.5
Health care	1,135	1,135	0.0	6.6
Entertainment	1,149	1,193	3.8	3.3
Personal care products & services	303	330	8.9	2.9
Reading	140	142	1.4	3.4
Education	314	337	7.3	7.8
Tobacco products & smoking supplies	230	232	0.9	7.1
Miscellaneous	522	562	7.7	
Cash Contributions	746	741	-0.7	
Personal insurance & pensions	2,127	2,175	2.3	
Life & other personal insurance	292	294	0.7	
Retirement, pensions, social security	1,834	1,881	2.6	

1/ Data in this table are not comparable to those in previously issued news releases which show information from the Interview survey separately from the Diary survey.

2/ Income values are derived from "complete income reporters" only; see glossary.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor Press Release USDL 89-330, July 6, 1989.

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HOUSING POLICY FOR NOW AND LATER

Production subsidies and a larger role for State and local governments and nonprofit groups are under consideration by congressional policymakers. Emerging legislation is complicated by the Federal budget deficit and instances of mismanagement and political favoritism at HUD.

The following has been excerpted from a three-page article in CRS Review (The Library of Congress, Congressional Research Service), October 1989. The author, Morton J. Schussheim, is a CRS senior specialist in housing.

Whither U.S. housing policy? The Nation's general goal is clear enough: a decent home and a suitable environment for every American family. Translating this aspiration into brick, mortar, and neighborhood for poor and disadvantaged Americans has never been easy. Today, the task has been further complicated by two stark realities: a huge budget deficit that constricts all Federal programs; and the mounting evidence that housing programs for low-income persons are subject to mismanagement, favoritism, and abuse. The American people will have to be convinced that the benefits of subsidized housing are going to the "needy, not the greedy," in the words of Housing Secretary Jack Kemp. And the tools of housing policy must be shaped in light of very limited resources, at least for the next several years.

Four questions stand out:

- How many families need housing help and how many are we prepared to help?
- Is there need for a production component in assisted housing for the poor or can we rely entirely upon the existing supply?
- Should State and local governments and nonprofit organizations be given larger roles in providing the housing assistance?
- Can housing programs be administered with a reasonable degree of competence, fairness, and honesty?

Responding to Need

HUD has estimated that 4 million renter households currently fall into a "worst case" need—poor families and elderly spending more than 50 percent of income for rent or living in substandard housing. Another 7 million unassisted renter households have less severe housing problems but are eligible for help. If assistance were to be extended to very low-income homeowners with housing problems, about 6 million more households would be eligible.

What level of assistance can be expected over the next several years? The FY90 appropriation for HUD approved by the House Committee on Appropriations provides 78,350 incremental units for low-income households. The FmHA programs will add approximately 41,000 housing units. Tax credits could go to about 100,000 units, but many of these are for projects already included in the HUD and FmHA totals.

Down the road, additional sources of low-income housing will come from provisions of the Financial Institutions Reform, Recovery, and Enforcement Act of 1989 and housing legislation pending in the Senate and the House. But all these efforts in the aggregate will still leave millions of families with housing problems.

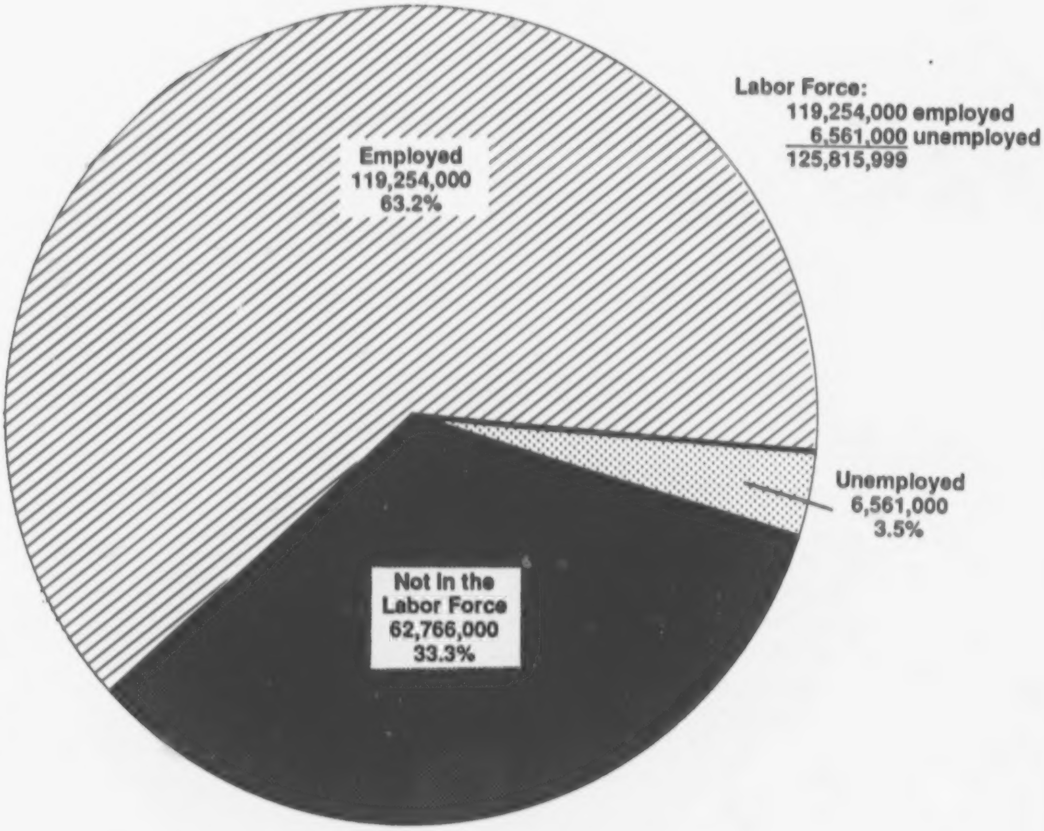
An entitlement program for low-income renters, assuming 50 percent participation, would require incremental enrollments of about 550,000 households a year over a ten-year period. Annual outlays in the tenth year would be about $22.5 billion above the $12 billion to $14 billion now being spent each year for low-income housing assistance. The benefits of increased housing expenditures would have to be weighed against benefits from other social programs, such as health and education, as well as the costs to taxpayers.

State and local governments are slated to get more responsibility in administering housing programs, while HUD's role is likely to decline. State and local officials have long claimed that they are in a better position to gauge their community's needs than Washington or even the area offices of HUD, and they complain of red tape and delays. There is some truth in these arguments, but there are also reasons for a strong Federal presence. How else can Congress be sure that national objectives are being met with Federal funds—fair housing practices, priority for low-income persons and neighborhoods, environmental protection, and similar concerns? Localities and even States have been known to practice "beggar thy neighbor" policies in some of these areas, or to spread the money around thinly when it is supposed to be concentrated on the poor.

But Federal officials can also mismanage programs and unfairly allocate funds, as happened in HUD in recent years. The misdeeds of some recent political appointees may have improved the chances for devolving housing programs to States and localities, a policy strongly pressed by President Reagan.

In any event, the thrust of recent legislative ideas, such as the proposed National Affordable Housing Act (S. 565), and the use of the tax code and financial reform to fund low-income housing in a period of budget austerity tend to give more autonomy to the States and localities and reduce the role of HUD. They also look to nonprofit organizations to take on a larger share of the sponsorship of housing developments. ◆

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF THE 188 MILLION OF US WHO ARE 16 YEARS AND OVER AND NONINSTITUTIONALIZED



U.S. Noninstitutional Population 16 Years and Over, October 1989

119,254,000	Employed	Labor Force
6,561,000	Unemployed	
62,766,000	Not in Labor Force	
188,581,000		

World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Employment and Earnings. November 1989. Table A-1. (Page 11 of this issue of World Eagle.)

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In The U.S. Today,
OVER 62 MILLION PEOPLE 18 YEARS AND OLDER ARE NOT IN THE LABOR FORCE

(57 Million of Those Say They Do Not Want a Job Now)

Reason, sex, and race	1986		1987				1988				1989		
	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III
TOTAL													
Total not in labor force	62,630	62,817	62,917	62,813	62,970	62,915	62,922	63,037	62,959	62,865	62,482	62,388	62,597
Do not want a job now	56,695	56,987	57,062	57,048	57,324	57,357	57,490	57,630	58,202	57,491	57,310	57,046	57,853
Current activity:													
Going to school	6,121	6,343	6,423	6,388	6,317	6,436	6,350	6,329	7,022	6,229	6,365	6,292	7,312
Ill, disabled	4,088	3,907	4,147	4,207	4,431	4,397	4,292	4,482	4,453	4,730	4,528	4,782	4,659
Keeping house	26,120	26,069	26,205	25,553	25,563	25,578	25,304	25,339	25,331	24,588	24,550	24,062	23,988
Retired	15,840	16,025	15,870	16,259	16,341	16,456	16,869	16,797	16,825	17,251	17,179	17,407	17,688
Other activity	4,525	4,643	4,416	4,641	4,672	4,490	4,675	4,683	4,571	4,693	4,688	4,503	4,206
Want a job now	5,931	5,848	5,775	5,885	5,788	5,455	5,484	5,318	5,276	5,418	5,313	5,331	5,509
Reason not looking:													
School attendance	1,511	1,415	1,364	1,479	1,516	1,371	1,327	1,286	1,387	1,412	1,279	1,274	1,477
Ill health, disability	905	769	854	906	838	849	849	832	794	750	910	965	889
Home responsibilities	1,200	1,357	1,240	1,326	1,265	1,237	1,193	1,209	1,128	1,145	1,177	1,151	1,169
Think cannot get a job	1,160	1,150	1,107	1,053	1,026	913	990	914	941	951	855	869	815
Job-market factors	753	828	735	706	652	587	667	600	599	597	562	519	511
Personal factors	407	322	373	347	374	326	323	314	341	354	293	350	305
Other reasons[1]	1,155	1,158	1,209	1,122	1,142	1,085	1,125	1,076	1,026	1,160	1,093	1,072	1,159
Men													
Total not in labor force	20,426	20,453	20,494	20,647	20,840	20,839	20,866	20,858	20,926	21,084	20,861	20,839	21,101
Do not want a job now	18,270	18,424	18,478	18,623	18,869	18,868	19,012	18,888	19,100	19,062	19,085	18,929	19,284
Want a job now	2,066	2,000	1,996	2,081	2,044	1,902	1,966	1,869	1,920	1,985	1,946	1,932	2,031
Reason not looking:													
School attendance	793	666	680	753	742	719	654	677	669	716	632	639	735
Ill health, disability	440	361	415	464	407	417	410	367	379	351	420	471	487
Think cannot get a job	431	499	452	437	445	364	440	414	447	446	410	410	340
Other reasons[1]	401	473	450	427	449	403	462	431	425	473	484	412	470
Women													
Total not in labor force	42,204	42,365	42,423	42,166	42,130	42,076	42,056	42,180	42,035	41,781	41,621	41,549	41,498
Do not want a job now	38,425	38,563	38,583	38,425	38,455	38,488	38,478	38,742	39,103	38,428	38,225	38,118	38,569
Want a job now	3,865	3,848	3,779	3,804	3,744	3,553	3,518	3,429	3,356	3,433	3,367	3,399	3,478
Reason not looking:													
School attendance	717	749	685	726	774	652	673	609	718	697	646	635	742
Ill health, disability	466	408	439	442	431	432	439	466	415	399	491	494	403
Home responsibilities	1,200	1,357	1,240	1,326	1,265	1,237	1,193	1,209	1,128	1,145	1,177	1,151	1,169
Think cannot get a job	729	651	655	615	581	549	551	500	494	505	445	460	475
Other reasons	753	684	760	695	693	682	663	645	601	688	609	660	689
White													
Total not in labor force	53,474	53,569	53,700	53,582	53,759	53,690	53,517	53,493	53,447	53,325	52,980	52,888	53,074
Do not want a job now	49,185	49,353	49,445	49,291	49,496	49,594	49,547	49,651	49,728	49,381	49,280	49,060	49,320
Want a job now	4,287	4,209	4,167	4,362	4,277	4,012	4,012	3,886	3,691	3,854	3,844	3,835	3,774
Reason not looking:													
School attendance	1,013	955	955	1,108	1,058	962	954	917	908	911	885	906	1,003
Ill health, disability	630	542	615	687	645	651	640	639	556	511	704	684	583
Home responsibilities	900	982	924	954	950	901	848	846	806	828	793	835	793
Think cannot get a job	827	801	745	718	679	611	670	596	600	676	570	527	514
Other reasons[1]	916	929	948	895	945	887	900	888	821	928	892	882	881
Black													
Total not in labor force	7,428	7,411	7,382	7,427	7,322	7,314	7,431	7,561	7,497	7,471	7,445	7,542	7,555
Do not want a job now	6,022	6,036	5,976	6,151	6,083	6,090	6,115	6,340	6,227	6,182	6,134	6,303	5,971
Want a job now	1,390	1,394	1,388	1,323	1,207	1,211	1,301	1,267	1,241	1,259	1,315	1,325	1,613
Reason not looking:													
School attendance	411	373	344	326	322	335	346	327	316	374	335	316	430
Ill health, disability	240	197	227	196	158	173	197	187	217	206	206	261	297
Home responsibilities	271	304	290	314	279	299	308	315	270	272	343	266	365
Think cannot get a job	271	297	327	314	294	244	264	276	290	210	253	323	272
Other reasons[1]	197	223	201	173	154	161	185	162	147	197	178	160	250

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[1] Includes small number of men not looking for work because of "home responsibilities."

Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics.
Employment and Earnings. October 1989. Table A-53.

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EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF THE U.S. NONINSTITUTIONAL POPULATION 16 YEARS AND OVER, 1955 TO DATE

(Numbers in thousands)

Year and month	Noninstitutional population	Labor force									Not in labor force
		Number	Percent of population	Employed					Unemployed		
				Total	Resident Armed Forces	Civilian			Number	Percent of labor force	
						Total	Agriculture	Nonagricultural industries			
	Annual averages										
1955	111,747	67,087	60.0	64,234	2,064	62,170	6,450	55,722	2,852	4.3	44,660
1956	112,919	68,517	60.7	65,764	1,965	63,799	6,283	57,514	2,750	4.0	44,402
1957	114,213	68,877	60.3	66,019	1,948	64,071	5,947	58,123	2,859	4.2	45,336
1958	115,574	69,486	60.1	64,883	1,847	63,036	5,586	57,450	4,602	6.6	46,088
1959	117,117	70,157	59.9	66,418	1,788	64,630	5,565	59,065	3,740	5.3	46,960
1960[1]	119,106	71,489	60.0	67,639	1,861	65,778	5,458	60,318	3,852	5.4	47,617
1961	120,671	72,359	60.0	67,646	1,900	65,746	5,200	60,546	4,714	6.5	48,312
1962[1]	122,214	72,675	59.5	68,763	2,061	66,702	4,944	61,759	3,911	5.4	49,539
1963	124,422	73,839	59.3	69,768	2,006	67,762	4,687	63,076	4,070	5.5	50,583
1964	126,503	75,109	59.4	71,323	2,018	69,305	4,523	64,782	3,786	5.0	51,394
1965	128,459	76,401	59.5	73,034	1,946	71,088	4,361	66,726	3,366	4.4	52,058
1966	130,180	77,892	59.8	75,017	2,122	72,895	3,979	68,915	2,875	3.7	52,288
1967	132,092	79,565	60.2	76,590	2,218	74,372	3,844	70,527	2,975	3.7	52,527
1968	134,281	80,990	60.3	78,173	2,253	75,920	3,817	72,103	2,817	3.5	53,291
1969	136,573	82,972	60.8	80,140	2,238	77,902	3,606	74,296	2,832	3.4	53,602
1970	139,203	84,889	61.0	80,796	2,118	78,678	3,463	75,215	4,093	4.8	54,315
1971	142,189	86,355	60.7	81,340	1,973	79,367	3,394	75,972	5,016	5.8	55,834
1972[1]	145,939	88,847	60.9	83,966	1,813	82,153	3,484	78,669	4,882	5.5	57,091
1973[1]	148,870	91,203	61.3	86,838	1,774	85,064	3,470	81,594	4,365	4.8	57,667
1974	151,841	93,670	61.7	88,515	1,721	86,794	3,515	83,279	5,156	5.5	58,171
1975	154,831	95,453	61.6	87,524	1,678	85,846	3,408	82,438	7,929	8.3	59,377
1976	157,818	97,826	62.0	90,420	1,668	88,752	3,331	85,421	7,406	7.6	59,991
1977	160,689	100,665	62.6	93,673	1,656	92,017	3,283	88,734	6,991	6.9	60,025
1978[1]	163,541	103,882	63.5	97,679	1,631	96,048	3,387	92,661	6,202	6.0	59,659
1979	166,460	106,559	64.0	100,421	1,597	98,824	3,347	95,477	6,137	5.8	59,900
1980	169,349	108,544	64.1	100,907	1,604	99,303	3,364	95,938	7,637	7.0	60,806
1981	171,775	110,315	64.2	102,042	1,645	100,397	3,368	97,030	8,273	7.5	61,460
1982	173,939	111,872	64.3	101,194	1,668	99,526	3,401	96,125	10,678	9.5	62,067
1983	175,891	113,226	64.4	102,510	1,676	100,834	3,383	97,450	10,717	9.5	62,665
1984	178,080	115,241	64.7	106,702	1,697	105,005	3,321	101,685	8,539	7.4	62,839
1985	179,912	117,167	65.1	108,856	1,706	107,150	3,179	103,971	8,312	7.1	62,744
1986[1]	182,293	119,540	65.6	111,303	1,706	109,597	3,163	106,434	8,237	6.9	62,752
1987	184,490	121,602	65.9	114,177	1,737	112,440	3,208	109,232	7,425	6.1	62,888
1988	186,322	123,378	66.2	116,677	1,709	114,968	3,169	111,800	6,701	5.4	62,944
	Monthly data, seasonally adjusted[2]										
1988:											
October	186,801	123,778	66.3	117,260	1,687	115,573	3,238	112,335	6,518	5.3	63,023
November	186,949	124,215	66.4	117,652	1,705	115,947	3,238	112,709	6,563	5.3	62,734
December	187,098	124,259	66.4	117,705	1,696	116,009	3,193	112,816	6,554	5.3	62,839
1989:											
January	187,340	125,124	66.8	118,407	1,696	116,711	3,300	113,411	6,716	5.4	62,216
February	187,461	124,865	66.6	118,537	1,684	116,853	3,223	113,630	6,328	5.1	62,596
March	187,581	124,948	66.6	118,820	1,684	117,136	3,206	113,930	6,126	4.9	62,633
April	187,708	125,343	66.8	118,797	1,684	117,113	3,104	114,009	6,546	5.2	62,365
May	187,854	125,283	66.7	118,888	1,673	117,215	3,112	114,102	6,395	5.1	62,571
June	187,995	125,768	66.9	119,207	1,666	117,541	3,096	114,445	6,561	5.2	62,228
July	188,149	125,622	66.8	119,125	1,666	117,459	3,219	114,240	6,497	5.2	62,527
August	188,286	125,706	66.8	119,285	1,688	117,597	3,307	114,290	6,421	5.1	62,580
September	188,428	125,742	66.7	119,158	1,702	117,456	3,257	114,199	6,584	5.2	62,686
October	188,580	125,814	66.7	119,254	1,709	117,545	3,217	114,327	6,561	5.2	62,766

[1] Not strictly comparable with prior years. For an explanation, see "Historical Comparability" under the Household Data section of the Explanatory Notes.

[2] The population and Armed Forces figures are not adjusted for seasonal variation.

NOTE: Revisions of seasonally adjusted monthly and quarterly data (shown in tables A-1 through A-3 and A-32 through A-53) for the most recent 5-year period are made at the end of each calendar year.

Source: Data from U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Employment and Earnings. November 1989. Table A-1.

World Eagle
64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

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SOME ASSERTIONS CONCERNING AMERICA'S WORKFORCE CRISIS

The following excerpts (from pages 1, 2, 3) are from Investing in People: A Strategy to Address America's Workforce Crisis, a sixty-page Report to the Secretary of Labor and the American People by the U.S. Department of Labor's Commission on Workforce Quality and Labor Market Efficiency, Labor Day 1989. (Stock Number 029-000-00428-5)

America's ability to shape the course of the twenty-first century will depend largely on the productivity of the American workforce. Competitive advantage has replaced military might as the principal source of global influence. Our major trading partners have realized that their productivity will determine both their international power and standard of living. These countries have made substantial commitments to educate and train their workforces. America has, in many respects, failed to do the same.

We as a nation stand at a crossroads; one road leads to increased competitiveness, higher standards of living, and a strong presence in the international community; the other, to economic decline. Our most formidable competitors have chosen the former. So too must we...

One major factor contributing to the skills gap is the low levels of achievement among students leaving our nation's schools. Employers report that alarming numbers of young job applicants have such poor reading and computation skills that it is impossible to provide them with job-specific training. These problems are particularly acute for the 25 percent of students who leave school before high-school graduation. Perhaps more troubling is the fact that many of those who do graduate possess little more than rudimentary language and mathematics skills.

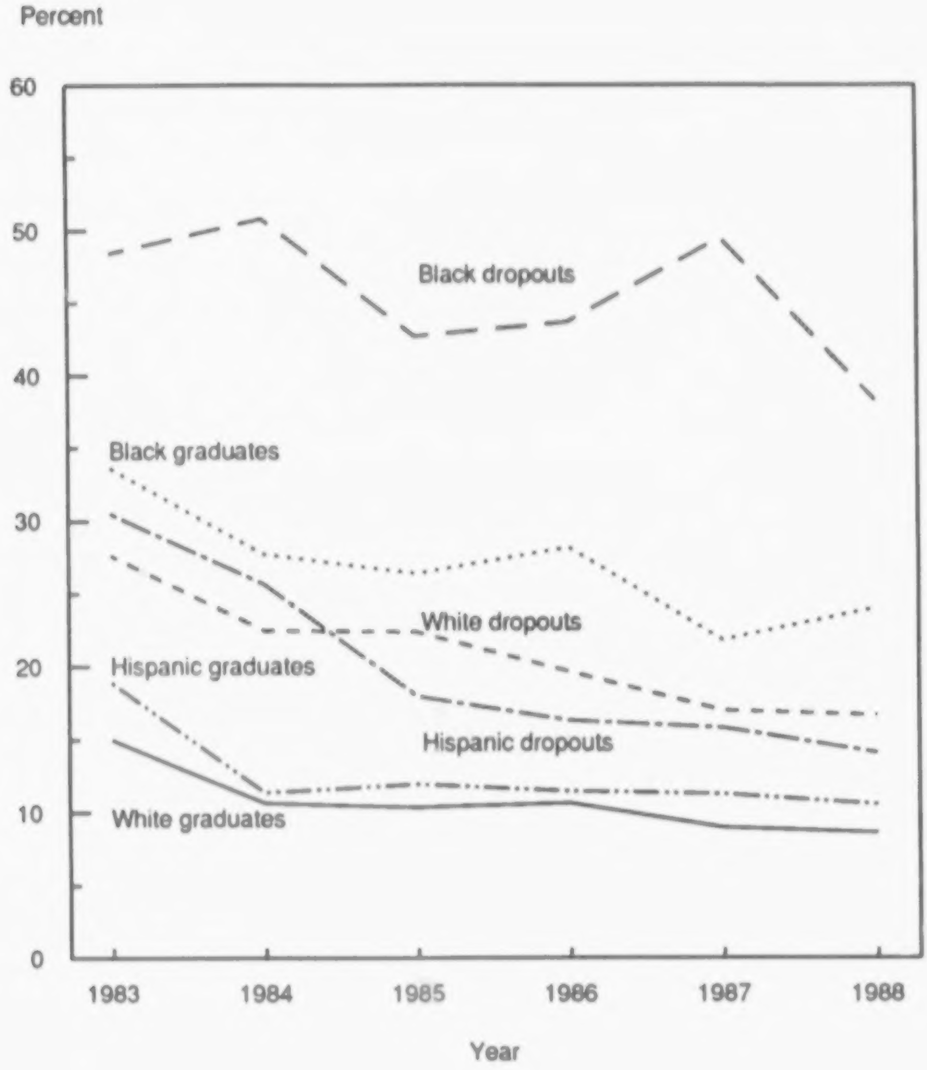
From the top to the bottom of the American talent pool, our students' academic achievements have failed to keep pace with the competitive requirements of the international marketplace. Our best mathematics students would be ranked just average in almost any Pacific rim nation...

We envision American students treating learning as a matter of highest priority. We envision American high schools with nearly 100 percent graduation rates, producing students whose achievements compare favorably with those of their peers in other developed countries. We envision an America in which virtually every adult can read and in which post-secondary education or training is a right rather than a privilege. We envision an America in which workers can find high-quality jobs and employers can find high-quality workers. We envision an America in which all employers are committed to substantial investments in the education and training of their workers. We envision an America without barriers to labor force participation and with full utilization of the skills of the nation's citizenry. We envision an American labor relations system based on cooperation.

Such an America would be, and would deserve to be, a major political and economic power in the twenty-first century...

FOCUS Section

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES AND HIGH SCHOOL DROPOUTS, BY RACE AND ETHNICITY: MARCH 1983-MARCH 1988



NOTE: Dropouts are those identified as completing 1-3 years of high school.

Source: U.S. Department of Education. Office of Educational Research and Improvement. The Condition of Education 1989. Volume 1. Elementary and Secondary Education. P. 31.

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UNEMPLOYMENT RATES IN EIGHT COUNTRIES

– Total Labor Force Basis, Approximating U.S. Concepts, Seasonally Adjusted, 1972-1989 –

PERIOD	UNITED STATES	CANADA	JAPAN	FRANCE	GERMANY	ITALY (1)(2)	SWEDEN	UNITED KINGDOM
1972	5.5	6.2	1.4	2.8	0.7	3.7	2.7	4.2
1973	4.8	5.5	1.3	2.7	0.7	3.6	2.4	3.2
1974	5.5	5.3	1.4	2.8	1.6	3.1	2.0	3.1
1975	8.3	6.9	1.9	4.0	3.3	3.4	1.6	4.5
1976	7.6	7.1	2.0	4.4	3.4	3.8	1.6	5.9
1977	6.9	8.0	2.0	4.9	3.4	4.0	1.8	6.3
1978	6.0	8.3	2.3	5.2	3.3	4.1	2.2	6.2
1979	5.8	7.4	2.1	5.9	2.9	4.3	2.0	5.3
1980	7.0	7.4	2.0	6.3	2.8	4.3	2.0	6.9
1981	7.5	7.5	2.2	7.4	4.0	4.8	2.5	10.4
1982	9.5	10.9	2.4	8.1	5.7	5.3	3.1	11.2P
1983	9.5	11.8	2.7	8.3	(3)7.0	5.8	3.4	11.7P
1984	7.4	11.2	2.7	9.7	7.2	5.8	3.1	11.6P
1985	7.1	10.4	2.6	10.2	7.3	5.9	2.8	11.1P
1986	6.9	9.5	2.8	10.4	6.7	(3)7.4	2.6	11.1P
1987	6.1	8.8	2.9	10.5	(3)6.2P	7.7	(3)1.9	10.2P
1988	5.4	7.7	2.5	10.1	6.2P	7.8P	1.6	8.2P
I	5.6	7.8	2.7	10.2	6.3	7.8	1.7	9.0
II	5.4	7.6	2.5	10.1	6.3	7.7	1.6	8.5
III	5.4	7.8	2.6	10.2	6.2	7.8	1.6	8.0
IV	5.3	7.7	2.4	10.0	6.1	7.7	1.4	7.5
1989								
I	5.1	7.5	2.4	9.9	5.7	7.6	1.4	7.0
II	5.2	7.6	2.3	9.9	5.6	7.8	1.3	6.5
III	5.2	7.3	2.3	9.9	5.6	7.7	1.3	6.2
SEPT	5.2	7.3	2.3	9.9	5.5		1.2	6.0
OCT	5.2	7.4	2.3	9.9	5.5		1.5	5.9
NOV	5.3	7.5	2.2	9.9	5.6		1.3	5.8

In the U.S. in October 1989, Employment Status of the Noninstitutional Population 16 years and over:
119,254,000 employed
6,501,000 unemployed

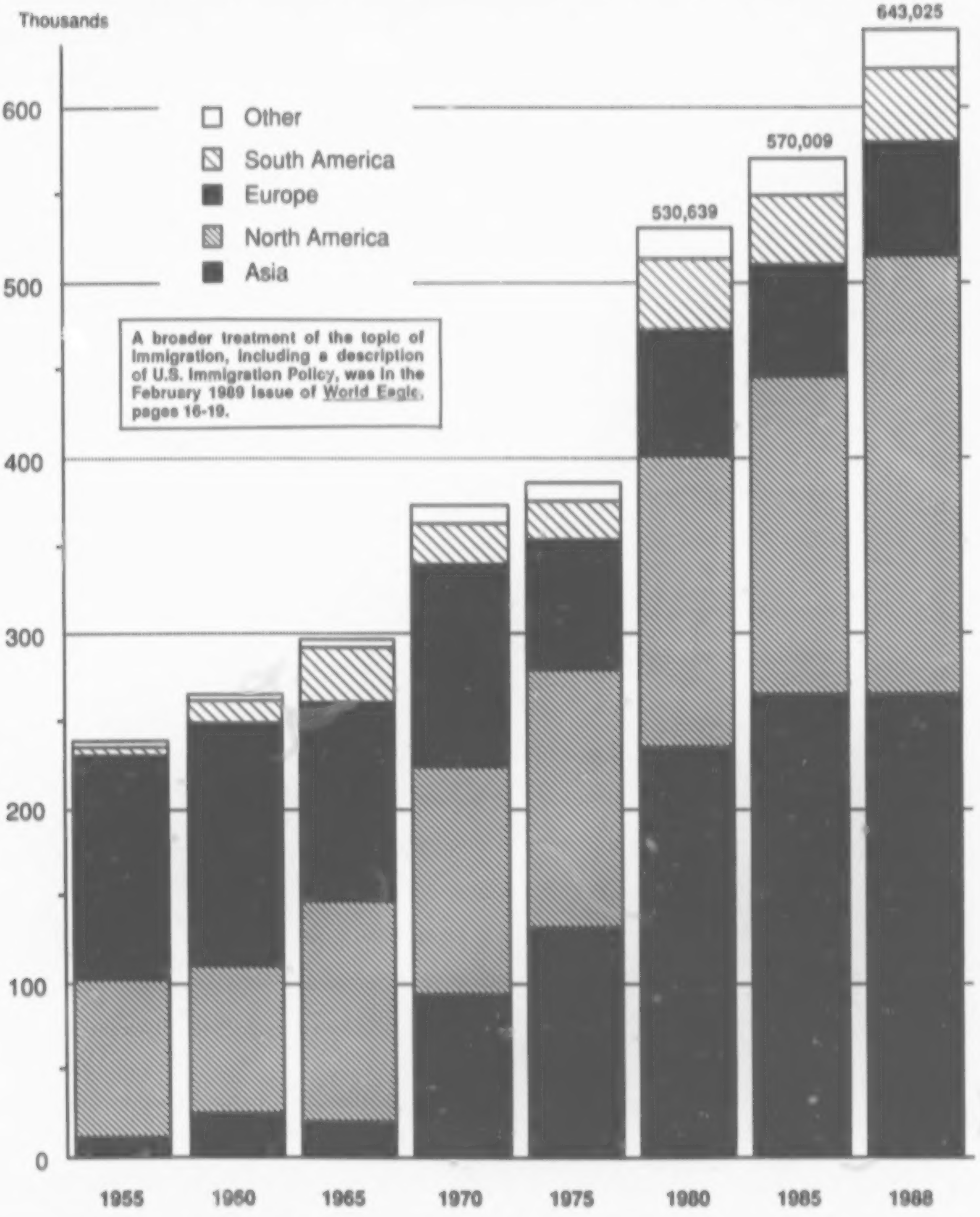
R = REVISED. P = PRELIMINARY.

(1) QUARTERLY RATES ARE FOR THE FIRST MONTH OF THE QUARTER. (2) MANY ITALIANS REPORTED AS UNEMPLOYED DID NOT ACTIVELY SEEK WORK IN THE PAST 30 DAYS, AND THEY HAVE BEEN EXCLUDED FOR COMPARABILITY WITH U.S. CONCEPTS. INCLUSION OF SUCH PERSONS WOULD ABOUT DOUBLE THE ITALIAN UNEMPLOYMENT RATE IN 1985 AND EARLIER YEARS AND INCREASE IT TO 11-12 PERCENT IN 1986-1988. (3) BREAK IN SERIES. BASED ON THE FORMER SERIES, THE GERMAN RATE FOR 1983 WAS 7.3 PERCENT AND THE ITALIAN RATE FOR 1986 WAS 6.2 PERCENT. FOR SWEDEN, THE 1986 RATE BASED ON THE NEW SERIES WAS 2.2 PERCENT. FOR GERMANY, THE 1987 RATE BASED ON THE FORMER SERIES WAS 6.7 PERCENT.

NOTE: QUARTERLY AND MONTHLY FIGURES FOR FRANCE, GERMANY, AND THE UNITED KINGDOM ARE CALCULATED BY APPLYING ANNUAL ADJUSTMENT FACTORS TO CURRENT PUBLISHED DATA AND THEREFORE SHOULD BE VIEWED AS LESS PRECISE INDICATORS OF UNEMPLOYMENT UNDER U.S. CONCEPTS THAN THE ANNUAL FIGURES. FOR FURTHER QUALIFICATIONS AND HISTORICAL DATA, SEE BLS BULLETIN 1979, "INTERNATIONAL COMPARISONS OF UNEMPLOYMENT" AND ITS METHODS AND STATISTICAL SUPPLEMENTS.

SOURCE: BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, JANUARY 1990.

IMMIGRANTS ADMITTED TO THE U.S. BY REGION OF BIRTH: SELECTED FISCAL YEARS 1955-1988



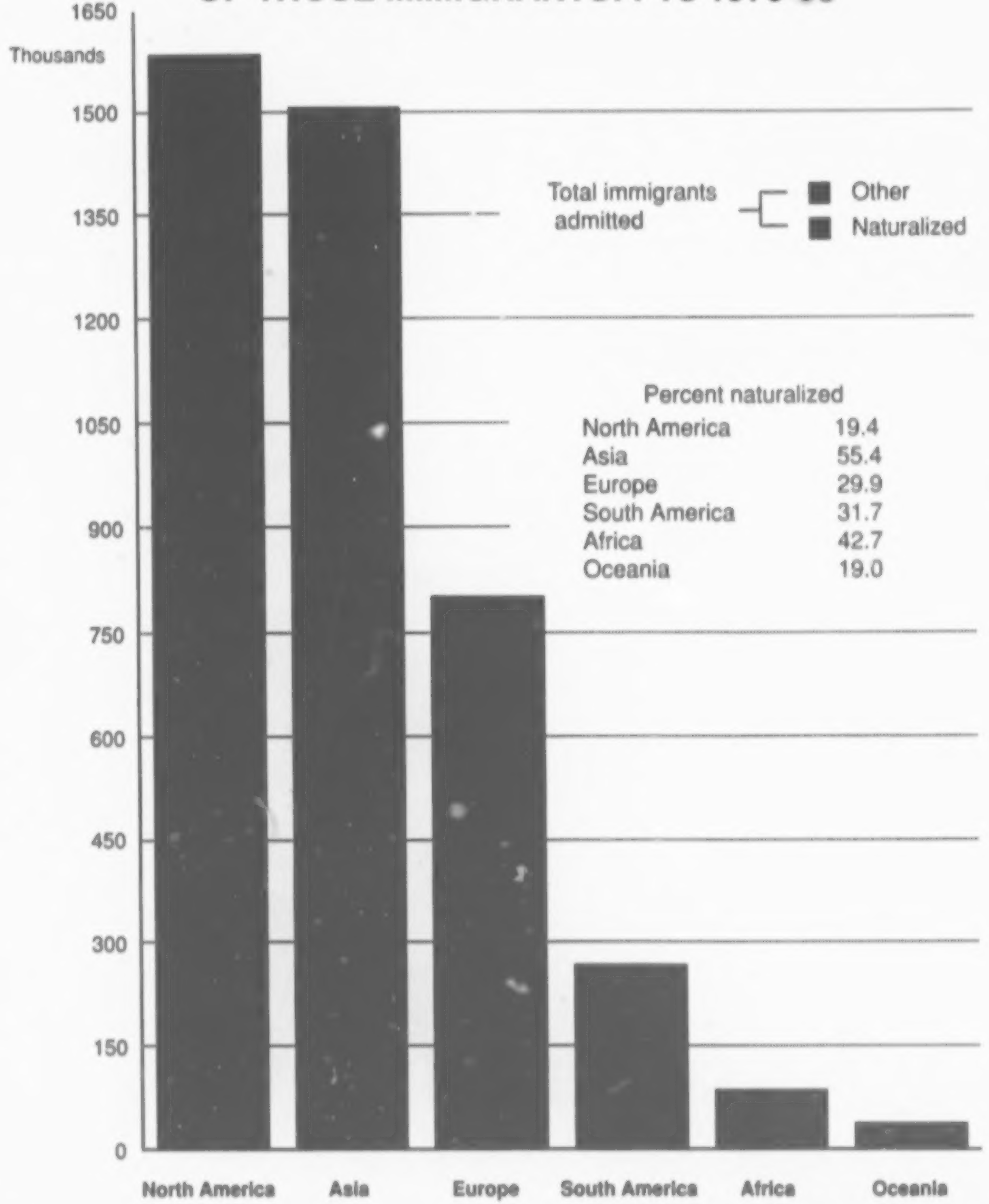
A broader treatment of the topic of immigration, including a description of U.S. Immigration Policy, was in the February 1989 issue of World Eagle, pages 16-19.

Source: 1981-88, Table 3; 1955-75, previous yearbooks. See Glossary for fiscal year definitions.

Source: U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service. 1988 Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service. P. xiv.

continued

IMMIGRANTS ADMITTED TO THE U.S., CALENDAR YEARS 1970-79 BY REGION OF BIRTH AND NATURALIZATIONS OF THOSE IMMIGRANTS: FYs 1970-88



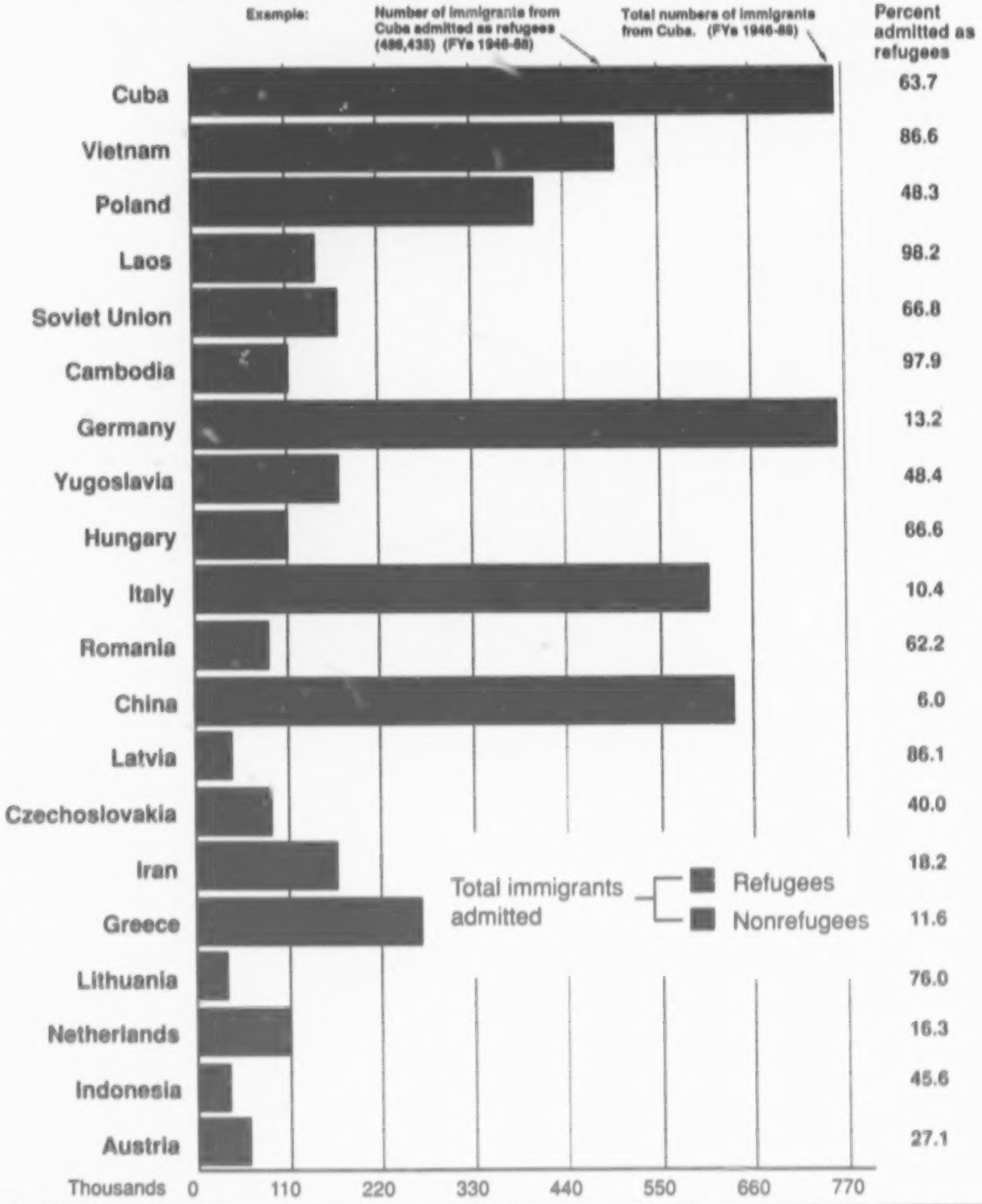
Percent naturalized

North America	19.4
Asia	55.4
Europe	29.9
South America	31.7
Africa	42.7
Oceania	19.0

Source: U.S. Department of Justice. Immigration and Naturalization Service. 1988 Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service. P. xi.

continued →

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF IMMIGRANTS ADMITTED TO THE U.S. AS REFUGEES FOR TOP TWENTY REFUGEE COUNTRIES OF BIRTH: FISCAL YEARS 1946-88



NOTE: Germany includes East and West Germany. China includes Mainland China and Taiwan. See Glossary for fiscal year definitions.

Source: U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service. 1988 Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service. P. xxvi.

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HIGHLIGHTS OF JUNE 1989 POLL ON PUBLIC ATTITUDES ON GOVERNMENTS AND TAXES

The material on this page and the next are from the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations (ACIR) survey, Changing Public Attitudes On Governments And Taxes 1989. Pp. 1, 2, 5, 9.

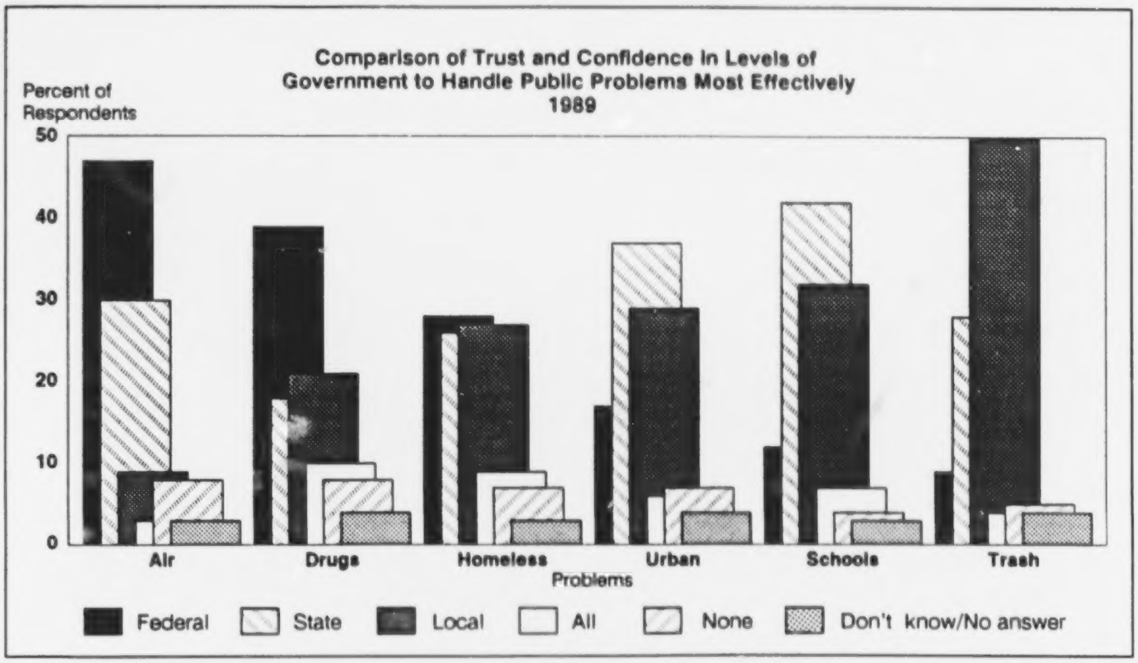
Major findings from the U.S. Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations June 1989 poll on changing public attitudes on government and taxes include the following:

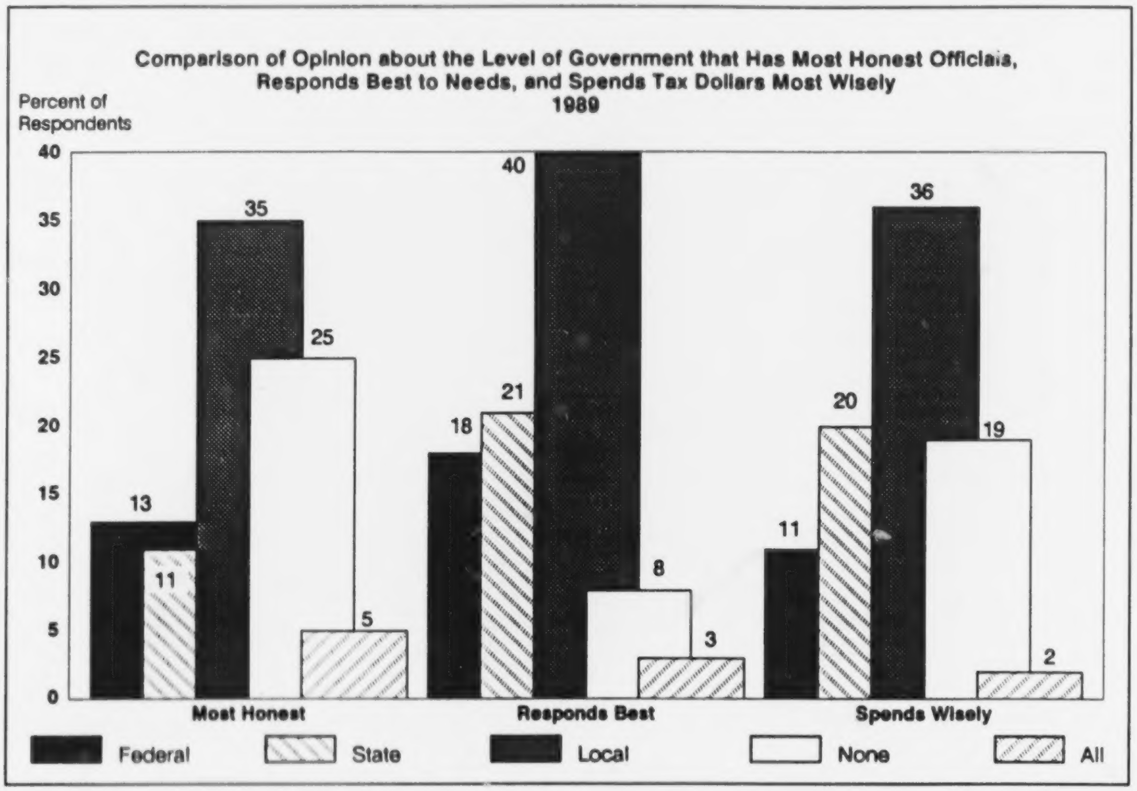
- For the past 18 years, the ACIR poll has asked, "Which do you think is the worst tax, that is the least fair?" In 1989, local property taxes were rated as the least fair by 32 percent of the respondents. Twenty-seven percent of the public rated the federal income tax as the least fair. The result is a clear change from the 1979-1988 trend, in which the federal income tax was consistently rated as the worst tax.
- One-third of the respondents to the 1989 poll chose the federal government as giving them the most for their money. Local government was chosen by 29 percent and state government by 23 percent; 15 percent replied don't know or gave no answer. The current results show a 5 percentage point increase in the proportion of respondents picking the federal government as giving them the most for their money, while the proportion selecting state government fell by 4 percentage points compared to 1988. The current results mark the first time since 1982 that the federal government clearly rated higher than state and local governments as giving citizens the most for their money.
- At the same time, the federal government was perceived as providing Americans the least for their money by 36 percent of the respondents. Twenty-five percent picked state government as providing the least for their money and 25 percent picked local government. Fourteen percent replied don't know or no answer.
- Local government officials receive relatively high marks for honesty. Asked, "On the whole, who do you think is most honest, federal officials, state officials or local officials?" 35 percent of the respondents chose local officials. Much smaller proportions chose federal officials (13 percent) or state officials (11 percent). However, one-quarter of the respondents volunteered that no officials are most honest, while only 5 percent volunteered that they are all honest.
- Local government also rated well in terms of spending tax dollars wisely. The ACIR asked, "Which level of government do you think spends your tax dollars most wisely?" Thirty-six percent of the respondents said that local government spends their tax dollars most wisely. Twenty percent chose state government and 11 percent chose the federal government.
- Local governments also did comparatively well on the question, "Which level of government do you think responds best to your needs?" Forty percent of the respondents chose local government as responding best, followed by 21 percent selecting state government and 18 percent, the federal government.
- The federal government was perceived to have too much power, compared to state and local governments. Sixty-one percent of the respondents said that the federal government has too much power, compared to 9 percent choosing the state governments and 4 percent mentioning local government.
- The ACIR poll also asked, "Which level of government do you think needs more power today?" Twenty-two percent said that state governments need more power; 34 percent said local governments and 5 percent, the federal government. Twenty-six percent of the respondents, however, volunteered that no government needs more power.
- Respondents were asked which level of government they had the most trust and confidence in to handle a variety of problems. A plurality of Americans stated the most trust and confidence in the federal government to handle air pollution (47 percent) and the war on drugs (39 percent). State government was selected as the one to handle improving public schools (42 percent) and managing urban development (37 percent), and local government was chosen for trash recycling (50 percent).

This is the 18th annual public opinion survey commissioned by the ACIR. The sample for the poll was 1,029 adults age 18 and older. The margin of error for samples of this size is plus or minus 4 percentage points at the 95 percent level of confidence.

continued ↗

PUBLIC ATTITUDES ON GOVERNMENTS AND TAXES *continued*


Comparison of Trust and Confidence in Levels of Government to Handle Public Problems Most Effectively 1989


Comparison of Opinion about the Level of Government that Has Most Honest Officials, Responds Best to Needs, and Spends Tax Dollars Most Wisely 1989

Source: Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations (ACIR), Changing Public Attitudes on Governments and Taxes 1989. Pp. 5 & 9.

PER CAPITA PERSONAL INCOME

Table 2.—Twenty Highest and Lowest Per Capita Personal Incomes for Counties in the United States, 1987

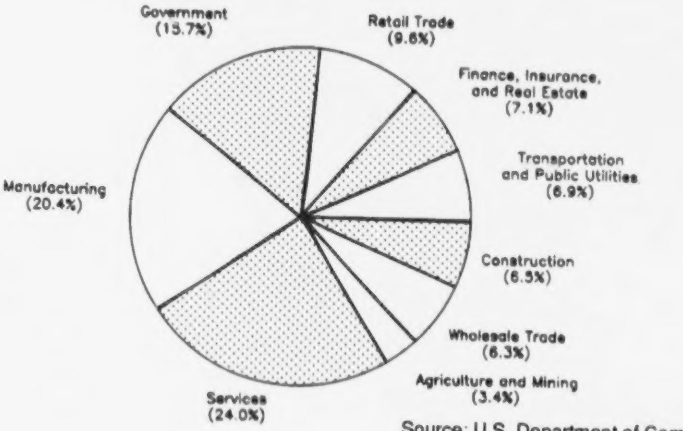
[Counties with total personal incomes of 50 million dollars or more]

County	Twenty highest per capita incomes: Dollars	Twenty highest per capita incomes: Percent of national average	County	Twenty lowest per capita incomes: Dollars	Twenty lowest per capita incomes: Percent of national average
New York, New York	30,214	195.1	Starr, Texas	4,252	27.5
Marin, California	30,181	194.9	Shannon, South Dakota	4,504	29.1
Somerset, New Jersey	27,306	176.3	Maverick, Texas	5,047	32.6
Arlington, Virginia	27,243	175.9	McCreary, Kentucky	5,570	36.0
Sherman, Texas	27,223	175.8	Dimmit, Texas	6,146	39.7
Pitkin, Colorado	27,078	174.9	Zavala, Texas	6,154	39.7
Westchester, New York	26,755	172.8	Edmonson, Kentucky	6,407	41.4
Alexandria City, Virginia	26,640	172.0	Apache, Arizona	6,557	42.3
Fairfield, Connecticut	26,316	170.0	Jackson, Kentucky	6,593	42.6
Bergen, New Jersey	25,845	166.9	Clay, West Virginia	6,607	42.7
Cheyenne, Colorado	25,686	165.9	Jefferson, Mississippi	6,617	42.7
Montgomery, Maryland	25,542	165.0	Lee, Arkansas	6,646	42.9
Morris, New Jersey	25,474	164.5	Perry, Alabama	6,777	43.8
Hunterdon, New Jersey	25,409	164.1	Lee, Kentucky	6,864	44.3
Fairfax, F'fx City, Falls Ch., Va	24,839	160.4	Shannon, Missouri	7,000	45.2
Nassau, New York	24,597	158.9	Hidalgo, Texas	7,001	45.2
San Mateo, California	24,237	156.5	Calhoun, West Virginia	7,015	45.3
Howard, Maryland	24,151	156.0	Webb, Texas	7,035	45.4
Nantucket, Massachusetts	24,146	155.9	Clinton, Kentucky	7,035	45.4
Stevens, Kansas	23,393	151.1	Madison, Louisiana	7,106	45.9

Table 3.—Total and Per Capita Personal Income and Population by Region, 1982-87

Area	Total personal income: Millions of dollars 1982	Total personal income: Millions of dollars 1987	Total personal income: Percent change 1982-87	Per capita personal income: Dollars 1982	Per capita personal income: Dollars 1987	Per capita personal income: Percent change 1982-87	Per capita personal income: Percent of national average 1982	Per capita personal income: Percent of national average 1987	Total population: Thousands 1982	Total population: Thousands 1987	Total population: Percent change 1982-87
United States	2,663,432	3,768,696	41.5	11,482	15,484	34.9	100.0	100.0	231,975	243,396	4.9
Metropolitan portion	2,164,170	3,097,289	43.1	12,214	16,525	35.3	106.4	106.7	177,189	187,429	5.8
Nonmetropolitan portion	499,262	671,407	34.5	9,113	11,996	31.6	79.4	77.5	54,786	55,967	2.2
New England region	156,305	238,395	52.5	12,572	18,560	47.6	109.5	119.9	12,433	12,845	3.3
Metropolitan portion	134,863	205,060	52.1	12,957	19,158	47.9	112.8	123.7	10,408	10,704	2.8
Nonmetropolitan portion	21,442	33,335	55.5	10,593	15,569	47.0	92.3	100.5	2,024	2,141	5.8
Mideast region	533,797	764,134	43.2	12,596	17,674	40.3	109.7	114.1	42,378	43,235	2.0
Metropolitan portion	496,097	712,536	43.6	12,932	18,191	40.7	112.6	117.5	38,361	39,170	2.1
Nonmetropolitan portion	37,701	51,597	36.9	9,385	12,693	35.3	81.7	82.0	4,017	4,065	1.2
Great Lakes region	469,844	637,478	35.7	11,293	15,213	34.7	98.4	98.2	41,607	41,905	.7
Metropolitan portion	380,087	518,379	36.4	11,831	15,995	35.2	103.0	103.3	32,126	32,410	.9
Nonmetropolitan portion	89,758	119,099	32.7	9,468	12,544	32.5	82.5	81.0	9,480	9,495	.2
Plains region	192,722	260,593	35.2	11,107	14,777	33.0	96.7	95.4	17,351	17,635	1.6
Metropolitan portion	116,345	161,351	38.7	12,236	16,267	32.9	106.6	105.1	9,509	9,919	4.3
Nonmetropolitan portion	76,377	99,242	29.9	9,739	12,862	32.1	84.8	83.1	7,842	7,716	-1.6
Southeast region	537,110	783,287	45.8	9,878	13,500	36.7	86.0	87.2	54,377	58,021	6.7
Metropolitan portion	380,616	566,401	48.8	10,882	14,908	37.0	94.8	96.3	34,977	37,992	8.6
Nonmetropolitan portion	156,493	216,886	38.6	8,067	10,829	34.2	70.3	69.9	19,400	20,029	3.2
Southwest region	259,155	340,420	31.4	11,340	13,649	20.4	98.8	88.1	22,854	24,942	9.1
Metropolitan portion	203,635	270,879	33.0	12,015	14,394	19.8	104.6	93.0	16,948	18,818	11.0
Nonmetropolitan portion	55,520	69,541	25.3	9,400	11,357	20.8	81.9	73.3	5,906	6,123	3.7
Rocky Mountain region	76,356	98,559	29.1	11,028	13,550	22.9	96.0	87.5	6,924	7,274	5.1
Metropolitan portion	49,802	66,099	32.7	11,897	14,612	22.8	103.6	94.4	4,186	4,524	8.1
Nonmetropolitan portion	26,554	32,460	22.2	9,700	11,803	21.7	84.5	76.2	2,738	2,750	.5
Far West region	418,672	619,237	47.9	12,839	17,233	34.2	111.8	111.3	32,609	35,933	10.2
Metropolitan portion	389,312	578,255	48.5	13,110	17,609	34.3	114.2	113.7	29,697	32,839	10.6
Nonmetropolitan portion	29,360	40,982	39.6	10,082	13,246	31.4	87.8	85.5	2,912	3,094	6.2
Alaska	7,739	9,624	24.4	17,366	18,321	5.5	151.2	118.3	446	525	17.9
Hawaii	11,732	16,970	44.7	11,760	15,677	33.3	102.4	101.2	998	1,083	8.5

Industrial Sources of Earnings 1987



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of Economic Analysis. Local Area Personal Income. Volume 1, Summary, 1982-87. October 1989. P.4.

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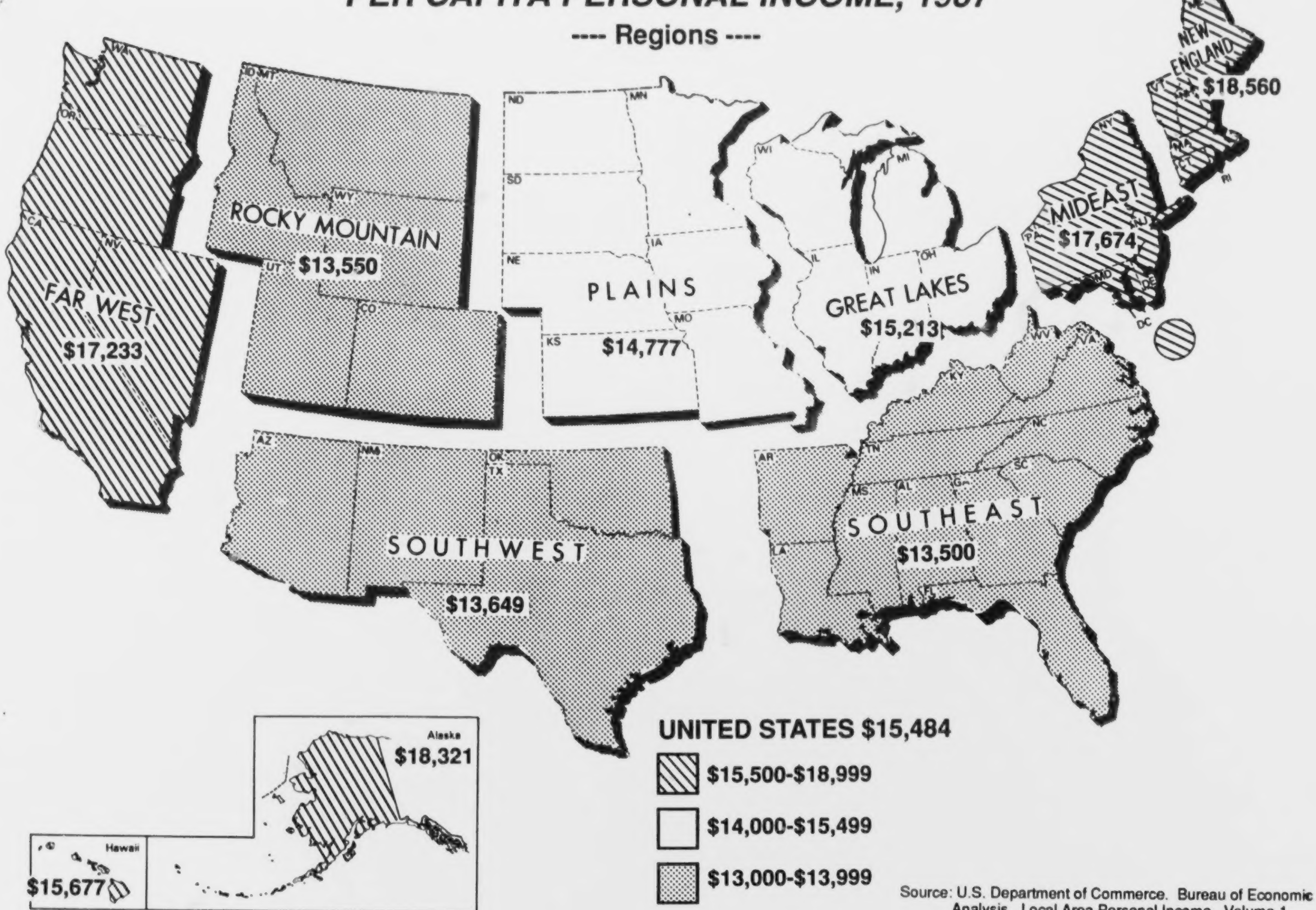
PER CAPITA PERSONAL INCOME, 1987

---- Regions ----


WA
OR
CA
NV
FAR WEST
$17,233
ID
MT
WY
ROCKY MOUNTAIN
UT
$13,550
CO
ND
MN
SD
IA
NE
PLAINS
MO
KS
$14,777
WI
MI
IL
IN
OH
GREAT LAKES
$15,213
NY
PA
MIDEAST
$17,674
NJ
MD
DE
DC
ME
NEW ENGLAND
VT
NH
$18,560
MA
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SOUTHWEST
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SOUTHEAST
$13,500
Alaska
$18,321
Hawaii
$15,677
UNITED STATES $15,484
▨ $15,500-$18,999
☐ $14,000-$15,499
░ $13,000-$13,999

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of Economic Analysis. Local Area Personal Income. Volume 1, Summary, 1982-87. October 1989. P.5.

FIVE STATES GREW IN POPULATION BY AT LEAST 10 PERCENT SINCE 1985, CENSUS BUREAU REPORTS

Five states have grown by at least 10 percent since the mid-1980s, according to the Commerce Department's Census Bureau.

From 1985 to midyear 1989, Nevada grew by 18 percent, followed by Arizona (12 percent), Florida and New Hampshire (11 percent), and California (10 percent). The national rate was 4 percent.

Seven states (Iowa, north Dakota, Montana, West Virginia, Wyoming, Louisiana, and Oklahoma) and the District of Columbia showed population losses form 1985 to 1989, although Iowa and Montana appear to have gained slightly in 1988-89.

The South and West continued to grow faster than the Northeast and Midwest, but the regional differences were less pronounced than in the first half of the decade.

The northeast continued growing at less than half of the 4 percent national rate, except for Maine (5 percent), Vermont (6 percent), and New Hampshire (11 percent).

Although the Midwest's growth picked up considerably from the first half of the decade, it still grew less than half as fast as the nation. Except for Minnesota, all of the midwestern states continued growing at substantially below the national rate. However, this represents a marked improvement for industrial states such as Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan, which were barely growing or declining in the first half of the decade.

Growth in the South has slowed from its rapid increases in the early 1980s, and now is close to the national rate. Major slowdowns have occurred in Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas. Slow growth or population declines have taken place in West Virginia, Kentucky, Mississippi, and the District of Columbia. Florida's growth of 1.3 million (14 percent of the U.S. total) from 1985 to 1989 was not enough to pull the region much above the national rate.

The West continued as the fastest growing region in 1985-89, gaining at more than twice the national rate despite far slower growth in Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico, Utah, and Alaska. Substantial growth in California (2.7 million) accounted for more than one-fourth of the nation's growth since 1985.

The accompanying table shows resident population estimates for July 1, 1989 and 1985, and the April 1, 1980 census counts. It also shows changes for 1985-89 by number and percent for the nation, regions, divisions, and states. Additional data will appear in Current Population Report, Series P-25, in 1990.

Source: Bureau of the Census. Release
CB89-204 December 29, 1989.

continued

ESTIMATES OF THE RESIDENT POPULATION OF STATES, JULY 1, 1985 AND 1989

Numbers in thousands. Includes Armed Forces resident in each State.

Region, division, and State	Estimate		April 1, 1980 (census)	Change, 1985-89	
	July 1, 1989	July 1, 1985		Number	Percent
United States..	248,239	238,736	226,546	9,503	4.0
Northeast........	50,772	49,865	49,135	907	1.8
New England..........	13,047	12,664	12,348	383	3.0
Middle Atlantic......	37,726	37,202	36,787	524	1.4
Midwest..........	60,148	59,199	58,866	949	1.6
East North Central...	42,298	41,656	41,682	642	1.5
West North Central...	17,851	17,543	17,183	308	1.8
South............	85,523	81,883	75,372	3,639	4.4
South Atlantic.......	43,115	40,220	36,959	2,894	7.2
East South Central...	15,406	15,126	14,666	280	1.8
West South Central...	27,002	26,537	23,747	465	1.8
West.............	51,796	47,788	43,172	4,008	8.4
Mountain.............	13,513	12,767	11,373	746	5.8
Pacific..............	38,283	35,021	31,800	3,262	9.3
New England:					
Maine..............	1,222	1,164	1,125	58	5.0
New Hampshire......	1,107	998	921	109	10.9
Vermont............	567	535	511	32	6.0
Massachusetts......	5,913	5,824	5,737	89	1.5
Rhode Island.......	998	967	947	32	3.3
Connecticut........	3,239	3,176	3,108	62	2.0
Middle Atlantic:					
New York...........	17,950	17,768	17,558	182	1.0
New Jersey.........	7,736	7,568	7,365	168	2.2
Pennsylvania.......	12,040	11,866	11,864	174	1.5
East North Central:					
Ohio...............	10,907	10,775	10,798	132	1.2
Indiana............	5,593	5,500	5,490	92	1.7
Illinois...........	11,658	11,539	11,427	119	1.0
Michigan...........	9,273	9,089	9,262	185	2.0
Wisconsin..........	4,867	4,753	4,706	114	2.4
West North Central:					
Minnesota..........	4,353	4,191	4,076	162	3.9
Iowa...............	2,840	2,870	2,914	-30	-1.1
Missouri...........	5,159	5,036	4,917	123	2.4
North Dakota.......	660	685	653	-25	-3.6
West North Central—con.					
South Dakota..........	715	708	691	7	1.0
Nebraska..............	1,611	1,605	1,570	6	0.4
Kansas................	2,513	2,448	2,364	64	2.6
South Atlantic:					
Delaware..............	673	626	594	47	7.5
Maryland..............	4,694	4,393	4,217	301	6.8
District of Columbia..	604	624	638	-19	-3.1
Virginia..............	6,098	5,704	5,347	394	6.9
West Virginia.........	1,857	1,936	1,950	-80	-4.1
North Carolina........	6,571	6,258	5,882	312	5.0
South Carolina........	3,512	3,335	3,122	177	5.3
Georgia...............	6,436	5,976	5,463	460	7.7
Florida...............	12,671	11,368	9,746	1,303	11.5
East South Central:					
Kentucky..............	3,727	3,724	3,661	2	0.1
Tennessee.............	4,940	4,767	4,591	173	3.6
Alabama...............	4,118	4,022	3,894	96	2.4
Mississippi...........	2,621	2,614	2,521	8	0.3
West South Central:					
Arkansas..............	2,406	2,360	2,286	46	1.9
Louisiana.............	4,382	4,484	4,206	-103	-2.3
Oklahoma..............	3,224	3,315	3,025	-90	-2.7
Texas.................	16,991	16,378	14,229	612	3.7
Mountain:					
Montana...............	806	825	787	-20	-2.4
Idaho.................	1,014	1,005	944	9	0.9
Wyoming...............	475	509	470	-35	-6.8
Colorado..............	3,317	3,232	2,890	85	2.6
New Mexico............	1,528	1,450	1,303	78	5.4
Arizona...............	3,556	3,161	2,718	395	12.5
Utah..................	1,707	1,644	1,461	63	3.8
Nevada................	1,111	939	800	171	18.3
Pacific:					
Washington............	4,761	4,407	4,132	354	8.0
Oregon................	2,820	2,689	2,633	132	4.9
California............	29,063	26,355	23,668	2,709	10.3
Alaska................	527	522	402	5	1.0
Hawaii................	1,112	1,050	965	63	6.0

Source: Bureau of the Census. Release CB89-204 December 19, 1989.

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OPINION

ON THE ART, CRAFT, AND BUSINESS OF JOURNALISM

Bill Kovach is curator of the Nieman Foundation (at Harvard University) and former editor of the Atlanta Journal-Constitution. Peter Costa is director of Harvard's University Office of News and Public Affairs. The following are two excerpts from a recent conversation between them, as reported in the Harvard Gazette, December 1, 1989.

Costa: Let's look at broadcast news. Even the strongest supporters of television as a news medium agree that television news, as it is presently done, can only give its audience the headlines. They agree with the premise that if you want to get information, you have to read about it in newspapers and magazines. And yet television news seems to be bandoning even the surface of news events and routinely now crosses into the entertainment world. I'm thinking of recent examples in which television news shows staged a few events to show the viewers how they imagined an event would be. They seem to have this need for action pictures at all times and they avoid the visually dull, but important, stories like Watergate. They were terrible on Watergate—they couldn't get a handle on it. That was a newspaper story. Does this skew reality since, for most Americans, television is their only window on the world? Is television getting too much like entertainment?

Kovach: I think those approaches do skew the consumer's concept of reality and I do think that they're reacting much the same way newspapers reacted to television. Television network owners are reacting to the proliferation of cable in the same way newspapers reacted to television. They're not doing what they do best in terms of news—the kinds of pieces that Edward Murrow did and Walter Cronkite did, which were very popular. *60 Minutes*, in its earliest incarnation, was a really special news show. It's become an entertainment show now, but in the beginning it was a great news show.

I think television is thrashing around and I think their first reaction is the same as newspapers, which is to try to change themselves and to make their news divisions into entertainment divisions and I hope that over time that will work itself out, because when it's properly done, a documentary or an in-depth report on television can be a very powerful information tool.

We're beginning to see enormous changes in the Soviet Union, China, and previously closed societies simply because information is loose in the world. We have to hope that, at this great juncture of the ability to move information and the need for information, the systems that produce it really take advantage of that opportunity to provide the kind of information that people need.

Costa: What do you think is the most underreported area in journalism today?

Kovach: I guess the thing I would like to have more information about is the way the system now ties itself together. I think I get too little information out of my newspapers and off of my television set about the relationship between local government and state government, state government and federal government, federal government and international issues. I don't quite understand how the system works anymore. I don't see the connections that I used to see. As I was growing up, I think I had a fairly clear view. I know the adults in my life had a fairly clear view of what it was they could do to affect the situation, what it was they could do to have an impact in terms of their own lives. I think we've lost that. I think we've lost a sense of the connection between things, and I wish more stories helped me understand what they are.

Costa: Have you also lost a sense of 'crusading journalism,' and by that I mean the kind of journalism you did early on in the 1950s and '60s when you were covering civil rights in the South. There was a story that had to be told, it was painful, but you went wherever the story took you. Nowadays, there doesn't seem to be that kind of continuity and coverage of a major social trend like that.

Kovach: I think we don't know what those trends are. Clearly, the environmental movement is one, and the reporting is beginning to pick up on that. I think we're creatures of crisis. One of the problems with journalism is that we have allowed the most potent system of communication and information the world has ever seen to develop without any real control in the development. We still don't know how to report process, we still don't know how to report quiet events. We tend to focus on confusion and rock-throwing and riot and revolution. The countries of the world that are relatively quiet may be having more impact on our future, but we never hear about them because they're quiet. We don't know how to report those stories. The most exciting time of my life was covering the civil rights movement in the South, but that story became the crisis it became because all of us, including the press, had not reported the civil rights problems that had been developing over the previous fifty years that led to that explosion. It was brought home to me on a trip to Central America a few years ago when the leader of the organization for human rights in El Salvador—who was assassinated two weeks after I saw him—asked me, 'what chance do we have to get into your newspapers? The killers can take guns and shoot their way in. But we're trying to solve this peacefully. How do we get into the newspaper?' It's an interesting question because I couldn't answer it. A human rights advocate who sits down across a table and rationally tries to discuss an issue is not going to get into the newspaper and we have yet to learn how to deal with that information. It may be the most important information we can give. ◆

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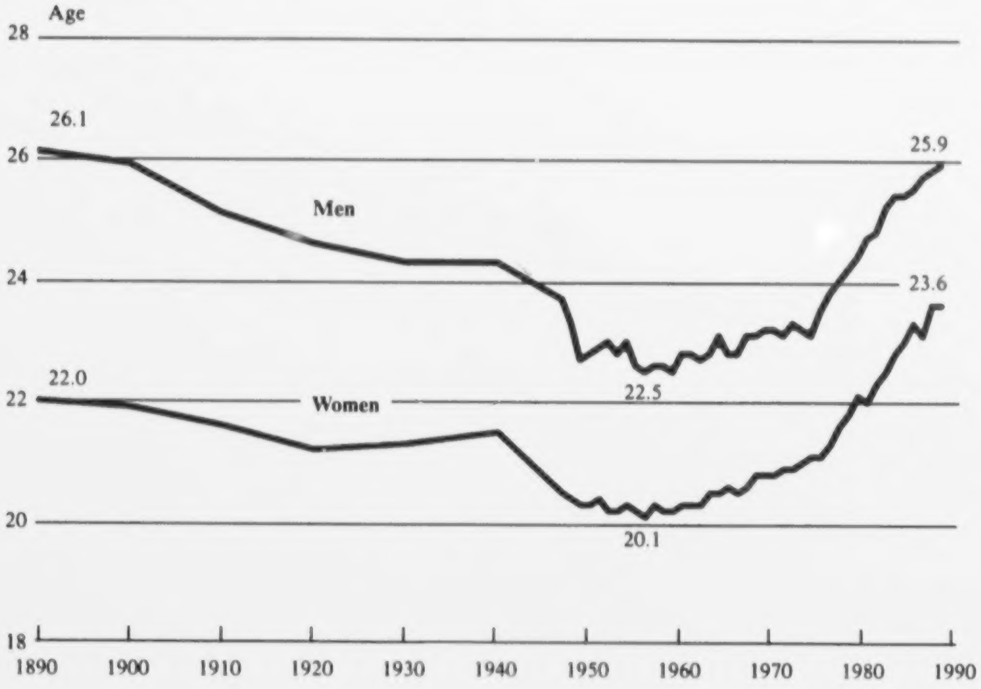
AGE AT FIRST MARRIAGE

Figure 3.
Median Age at First Marriage, by Sex: 1890 to 1988



Since the mid–1950's, the estimated median age at first marriage has moved upward gradually, increasing by about 3 years for both men and women. The median age at first marriage for men (25.9 in 1988) now stands at a level close to the age for men in 1900. The median age at first marriage for women (23.6 in 1988) has been higher during the 1980's than at any previously recorded time.

The increasing age at first marriage is associated with increases in educational attainment and women's labor force participation, as well as delayed and reduced fertility, and potentially increased marital stability.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports. Changes in American Family Life. Special Studies. Series P-23, No. 163. Page 5.

continued

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PERCENT SINGLE

The postponement of marriage is reflected in the substantial rise in the proportion of men and women of prime marrying age who have not yet married for the first time. While proportions not yet married for men and women showed little or no change between 1960 and 1970, rapid increases occurred between 1970 and 1988. The proportions of men in their late twenties and early thirties who have not yet married doubled since 1970, and the proportions of women have nearly tripled. Although, increases in the percent never married are striking, it is estimated that 90 percent will ultimately marry.

In addition to the associations mentioned for figure 3, an increase in singleness also may contribute to increases in premarital births as women spend a larger part of their childbearing years in an unmarried status.

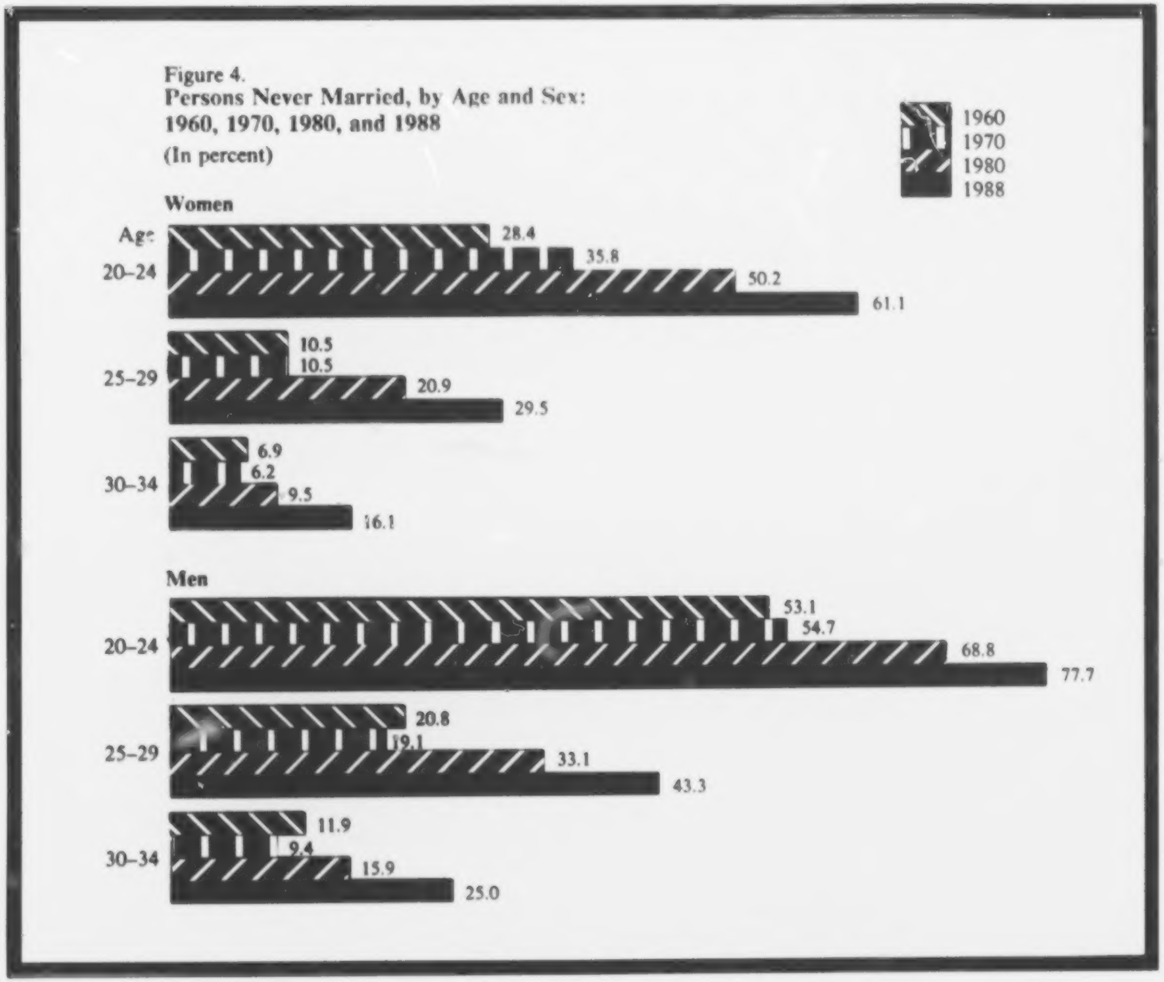
Figure 4.
Persons Never Married, by Age and Sex: 1960, 1970, 1980, and 1988
(In percent)

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports. Changes in American Family Life. Special Studies. Series P-23, No. 163. Page 6.

continued

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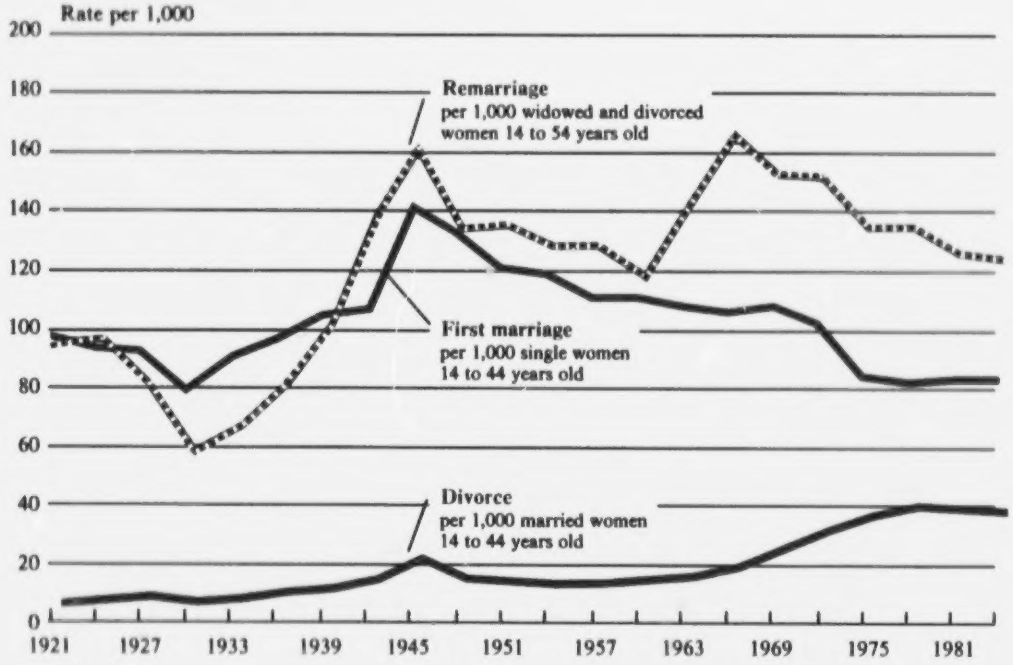
MARRIAGE, DIVORCE, AND REMARRIAGE

Figure 5.
Rates of First Marriage, Divorce, and Remarriage for Women: 1921 to 1984
(In 3-year averages)



Rates of first marriage, divorce, and remarriage for women are beginning to stabilize after fluctuating considerably over the last half century. First marriage rates declined during the 1970's and have remained at low levels into the 1980's because young women are delaying marriage or perhaps never marrying at all.

Teenage marriages have a higher risk of ending in divorce than do marriages that occur at older ages. If current trends persist, 1 out of 2 marriages that have occurred since the early 1970's could end in divorce. However, the majority of persons who do divorce after first marriage will remarry.

Changes in marital behavior have led to increases in single-parent families, smaller households, families with lower incomes, and more blended or reconstituted families from remarriages.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports. Changes in American Family Life. Special Studies. Series P-23, No. 163. Page 7.

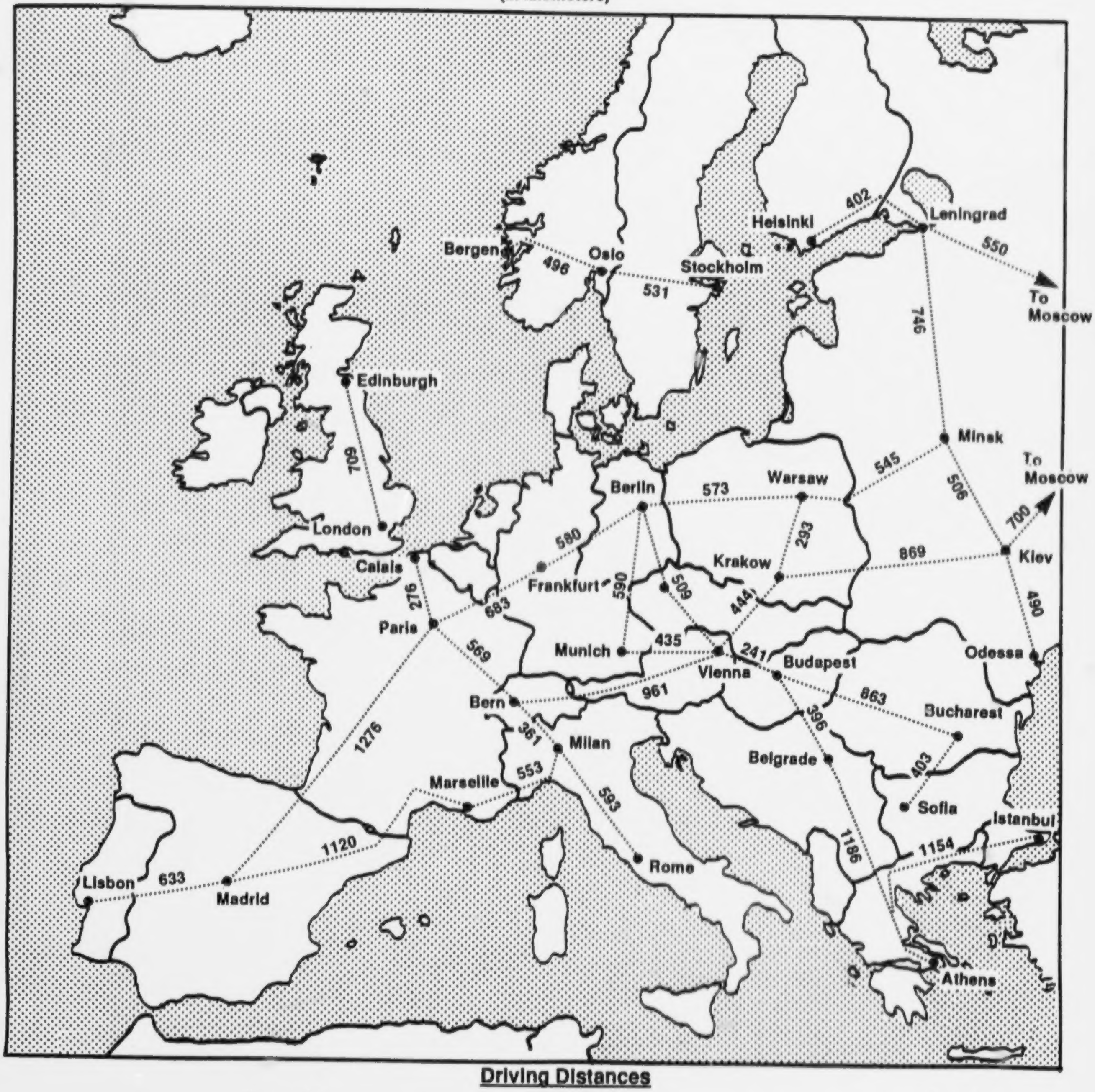
1989 FEDERAL BUDGET PERFORMANCE GETS POOR GRADES FROM TAX FOUNDATION

Economic Conditions	At the end of 1989, the United States completed seven consecutive years of growth, the longest peacetime expansion in history. 1989's growth slowed to approximately 3 percent — but was on track with the forecast in the revised 1989 budget. Economic growth has helped bring in substantial additional federal revenues averaging $50 billion more each year over the past seven years. Unfortunately, despite growth and sharp revenue increases, the federal government has not been able to grow out of the deficit. Congress was forced to increase the national debt limit to a record $3.12 trillion, representing well over $12,000 for every American, triple the amount of just ten years ago. Net interest payments on the debt alone claim one out of every seven dollars spent by the federal government. Little was done in 1989 to address the historically low U.S. savings rate and the high cost of capital.	A–
Policy Management	There has been a serious breakdown in communication and trust between Congress and the President, and a number of events early in 1989 soured relationships between the two parties. Resulting partisan battles dominated the agenda, and Congress and the President were unable to make the April budget summit agreement work as announced. There will be no enduring progress on the deficit without two vital developments: reestablishment of working relationships between the parties, and implementation of additional budget reforms. The budgetary impasse between the two branches has encouraged shortsighted gamesmanship in which each side puts a premium on outwitting the other, at the expense of achieving real deficit reduction.	D
Deficit Reduction	When fiscal year 1989 ended in September, we were left with a $152.1 billion dollar deficit — a mere $3.1 billion less than the previous year's deficit and $16.1 billion over the mandated target. The new 1990 deficit reduction package relies on such deceptive bookkeeping gimmicks as speeding up the collection of various taxes, moving the U.S. Post Office off-budget, and shifting spending into other budget years. It contains little if any long-term savings, making even more difficult the task of achieving future deficit reductions. With the deficit currently running about $150 billion, the $64 billion target mandated for 1991 appears remote indeed.	Appearance B Reality D
Truth in Budgeting	Budgetary honesty has suffered tremendously under pressure to show smaller deficits. The Gramm-Rudman-Hollings process has helped deficit reduction, but the budget process in general has been no match for the creative accounting conjured up by the Congressional mind. Mystique and misinformation have engulfed the budget process. Of the recent $50 billion needed to close down faltering savings and loans, $20 billion was put into fiscal 1989, which was nearly over, and the remaining $30 billion was simply hidden off-budget for 1990 and 1991. The 1990 budget package barely mentioned tax increases even though it included over $6 billion in "revenue-raising" provisions for 1990. These will cost taxpayers nearly $30 billion over the next five years.	F
Completion of Required Budgetary Tasks	Because lawmakers once again failed to clear all 13 of 1990's spending bills by October 1, the start of the new fiscal year, Congress was forced to approve three short-term spending measures, or continuing resolutions (CRs), to keep the government agencies running. These three CRs were an easy target to tack on nearly $4 billion in additional spending. Congress did not approve the annual deficit-reduction plan until just a few hours before its final adjournment for 1989. Such eleventh-hour action makes a mockery of thoughtful budget planning. Substantial legislation is barely considered in committee or on the floor; and the President does not get a fair opportunity to review it.	F

Source: Tax Foundation. January 3, 1990. 470 L'Enfant Plaza, SW, Suite 7112, Washington DC 20024. Telephone (202) 863-5454. The Tax Foundation is a nonprofit, nonpartisan research and public education organization founded in 1937 to monitor tax and fiscal activities at all levels of government. It now operates as a separate unit of Citizens for a Sound Economy Foundation.

DISTANCES IN EUROPE

(in kilometers)


Bergen
496
Oslo
531
Stockholm
Helsinki
402
Leningrad
550
To Moscow
746
Edinburgh
709
London
Calais
276
580
Berlin
573
Warsaw
545
Minsk
506
To Moscow
700
Kiev
869
Krakow
293
Frankfurt
590
509
444
490
Paris
683
569
Munich
435
Vienna
241
Budapest
Odessa
961
Bern
863
Bucharest
361
Milan
396
Belgrade
403
Sofia
1276
Marseille
553
593
Rome
1186
Istanbul
1154
1120
Lisbon
633
Madrid
Athens

Driving Distances

	miles	km
Athens-Istanbul	717	1154
Belgrade-Athens	738	1186
Bergen-Oslo	308	496
Berlin-Munich	367	590
Berlin-Vienna	316	509
Berlin-Warsaw	356	573
Bern-Milan	224	361
Bern-Vienna	597	961
Bucharest-Sofia	250	403
Budapest-Belgrade	247	396
Budapest-Bucharest	536	863
Frankfurt-Berlin	360	580
Helsinki-Leningrad	250	402

	miles	km
Kiev-Minsk	314	506
Kiev-Odessa	304	490
Krakow-Kiev	540	869
London-Edinburgh	441	709
Madrid-Lisbon	393	633
Madrid-Marseille	696	1120
Marseille-Milan	344	553
Milan-Rome	368	593
Minsk-Leningrad	464	746
Munich-Vienna	270	435
Oslo-Stockholm	330	531
Paris-Bern	354	569
Paris-Calais	172	276

	miles	km
Paris-Frankfurt	424	683
Paris-Madrid	793	1276
Vienna-Budapest	150	241
Vienna-Krakow	276	444
Warsaw-Krakow	182	293
Warsaw-Minsk (via Brest)	339	545
Air distances:		
Kiev-Moscow	435	700
Moscow-Leningrad	342	550

EUROPE TODAY map. Data from American Automobile Association, Planning Map of Europe 1989.

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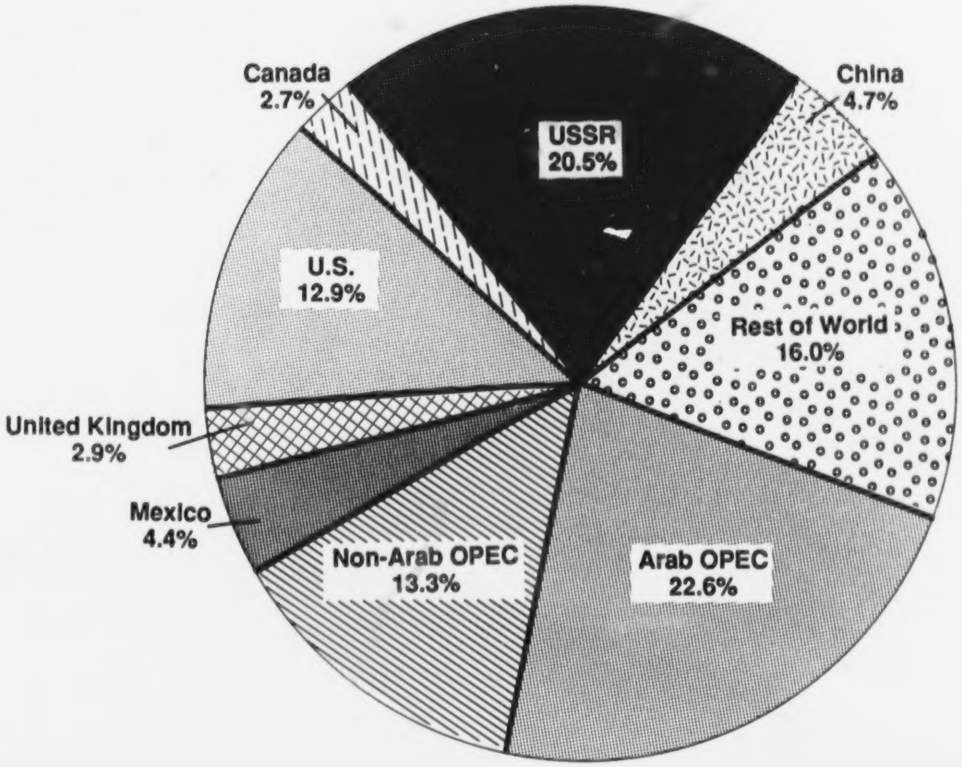


WORLD'S ESTIMATED OIL PRODUCTION, 1989

Total World Production (1,000 b/d): 59,380.8

World Shares Produced by the 13 OPEC Member Nations

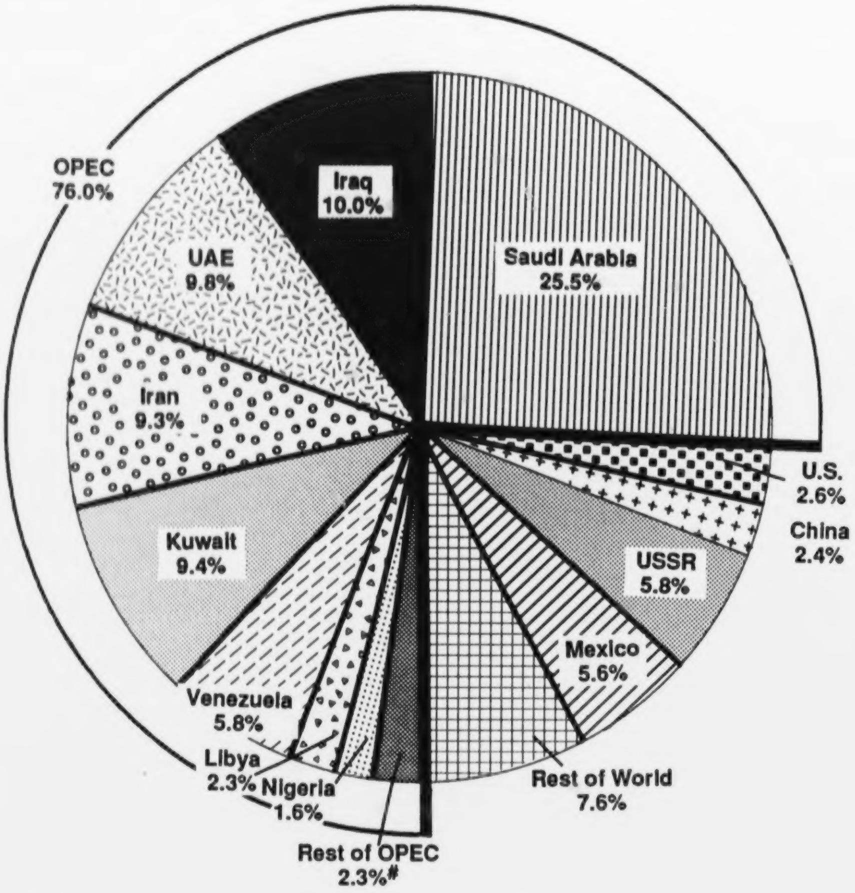
(Percent of World Production)

Arab OPEC		Non-Arab OPEC	
Algeria	1.2%	Ecuador	0.5%
Iraq	4.8	Gabon	0.3
Kuwait	2.6	Indonesia	2.0
Libya	1.9	Iran	4.9
Qatar	0.7	Nigeria	2.7
Saudi Arabia	8.3	Venezuela	2.9
UAE	3.1	TOTAL	13.3%
TOTAL	22.6%		

World Eagle chart and table. Data from "The Worldwide Report" by Oil and Gas Journal, December 25, 1989.

WORLD'S ESTIMATED PROVED RESERVES OF OIL AS OF JANUARY 1, 1990

All reserves figures except those for the USSR are reported as proved reserves recoverable with present technology and prices. USSR figures are "explored reserves" which includes proved, probable, and some possible.



Total Estimated proved Reserves of Oil: 1,001,571,623 (1,000 bbl)

		(1,000 bbl)				(1,000 bbl)	
*1.	Saudi Arabia	254,959,000	25.5%	13.	Norway	11,546,204	1.2%
*2.	Iraq	100,000,000	10.0%	*14.	Algeria	9,200,000	0.9%
*3.	UAE	98,105,000	9.8%	*15.	Indonesia	8,200,000	0.8%
*4.	Kuwait	94,525,000	9.4%	16.	India	7,516,400	0.8%
*5.	Iran	92,860,000	9.3%	17.	Canada	6,133,495	0.6%
*6.	Venezuela	58,504,000	5.8%	18.	Divided (Neutral) Zone	5,200,000	0.5%
7.	USSR	58,400,000	5.8%				
8.	Mexico	56,365,000	5.6%	19.	Egypt	4,500,000	0.4%
9.	U.S.	25,860,000	2.6%	*20.	Qatar	4,500,000	0.4%
10.	China	24,000,000	2.4%	21.	United Kingdom	4,255,620	0.4%
*11.	Libya	22,800,000	2.3%	22.	Oman	4,250,000	0.4%
*12.	Nigeria	16,000,000	1.6%	23.	Yemen, South	3,000,000	0.3%

* These eleven are members of OPEC. Ecuador and Gabon are also.
# Algeria, Ecuador, Gabon, Indonesia, Qatar

World Eagle chart and table. Data from "The Worldwide Report" by Oil and Gas Journal, December 25, 1989.

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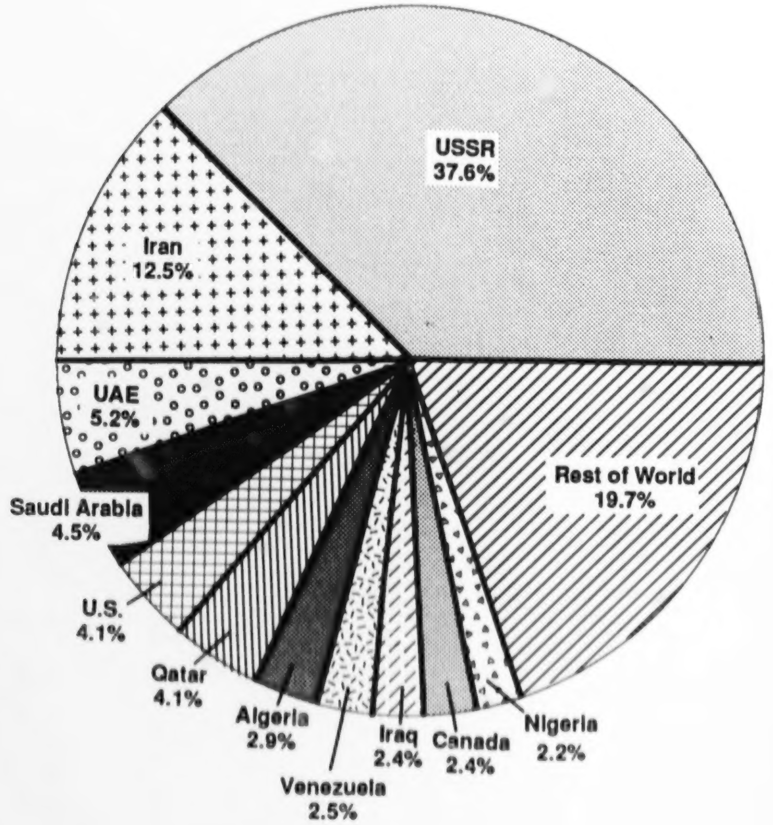
WORLD'S ESTIMATED PROVED RESERVES OF NATURAL GAS AS OF JANUARY 1, 1990

All reserves figures except those for the USSR are reported as proved reserves recoverable with present technology and prices. USSR figures are "explored reserves" which includes proved, probable, and some possible. Canadian gas figure, under criteria adopted by Canadian Petroleum Association for the first time in 1980, includes proved and some probable.



WORLD: 3,989,119 billion cubic feet

1.	USSR	1,500,000	37.6%
2.	Iran	500,000	12.5%
3.	UAE	208,000	5.2%
4.	Saudi Arabia	181,347	4.5%
5.	U.S.	165,000	4.1%
6.	Qatar	163,100	4.1%
7.	Algeria	114,000	2.9%
8.	Venezuela	100,846	2.5%
9.	Iraq	95,000	2.4%
10.	Canada	94,300	2.4%
11.	Nigeria	87,400	2.2%
12.	Indonesia	87,015	2.2%
13.	Norway	82,160	2.1%
14.	Mexico	73,380	1.8%
15.	Netherlands	61,100	1.5%
16.	Malaysia	51,900	1.3%
17.	Kuwait	48,600	1.2%
18.	China	35,300	0.9%
19.	Argentina	27,299	0.7%
20.	Libya	25,500	0.6%
21.	India	22,973	0.6%
22.	United Kingdom	20,836	0.5%
23.	Pakistan	18,000	0.5%
24.	Australia	16,467	0.4%

Worldwide Report" by Oil and Gas Journal, December 25, 1989.

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THE KENNEDY CENTER HONORS: A CELEBRATION OF THE PERFORMING ARTS

The John F. Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts announced today (September 28, 1978) that it will present Kennedy Center Honors annually to individuals who throughout their lifetime have made significant contributions to American culture through the performing arts.

The primary criterion in the selection of the Honors recipients is "artistic achievement as performer, composer, choreographer, playwright, director or conductor." Dance, music, theater, opera, motion pictures and television are considered. The Honors are not designated by art form or category of artistic achievement; the selection process, over time, will provide balance among the various arts and artistic disciplines.

1978

Marian Anderson, contralto, born 1902 in Philadelphia, PA
Fred Astaire, dancer, born 1899 in Omaha, NE
George Balanchine, choreographer, born 1904 in Russia
Richard Rodgers, composer, born 1902 in New York City
Artur Rubinstein, pianist, born 1887 in Poland. First U.S. tour in 1906

1979

Aaron Copland, composer, born 1900 in Brooklyn, NY
Ella Fitzgerald, singer, born 1918 in Newport News, VA
Henry Fonda, actor, born 1905 in Grand Island, NE
Martha Graham, dancer-choreographer, born 1894 in Pittsburgh, PA
Tennessee Williams, playwright, born 1911 in Columbus, MS

1980

Leonard Bernstein, composer and conductor, born 1918 in Lawrence, MA
James Cagney, movie actor, born 1904 in New York City
Agnes DeMille, choreographer, born 1909 in New York City
Lynn Fontanne, actress, born 1887 in Essex County, England
Leontyne Price, soprano, born 1927 in Laurel, MS

1981

Count Basie, band leader, born 1904 in Red Bank, NJ
Cary Grant, film actor, born 1904 in Bristol, England
Helen Hayes, stage and screen actress, born 1900 in Washington, DC
Jerome Robbins, choreographer and dancer, born 1918 in New York City
Rudolf Serkin, pianist, born 1903 in Eger, Bohemia, now Czechoslovakia

1982

George Abbott, director/playwright, born 1887 in Forestville, NY
Lillian Gish, actress, born 1896 in Springfield, OH
Benny Goodman, band leader/clarinetist, born 1909 in Chicago
Gene Kelly, dancer/choreographer, director, born 1912 in Pittsburgh, PA
Eugene Ormandy, conductor, born 1899 in Budapest

1983

Katherine Dunham, dancer/choreographer, born 1910 in Joliet, IL
Elia Kazan, director, born 1909 in Constantinople
Frank Sinatra, singer/actor, born 1915 in Hoboken, NJ
James Stewart, actor, born 1908 in Indiana, PA
Virgil Thomson, composer/critic, born 1896 in Kansas City, MO

1984

Lena Horne, singer/actress, born 1917 in Brooklym NY
Danny Kaye, actor/singer, born 1913 in Brooklyn, NY
Gian Carlo Menotti, composer/director, born 1911 in Cardegliano, Italy
Arthur Miller, playwright, born 1915 in New York City
Isaac Stern, violinist, born 1920 in Kreminiecz, Russia

1985

Merce Cunningham, dancer/choreographer, born 1922+/- in Centralia, WA
Irene Dunne, actress, born 1904 in Louisville, KY
Bob Hope, actor, born 1903 in London
Alan Jay Lerner, lyricist/playwright, born 1918 in New York City
Frederick Loewe, composer, born 1904 in Vienna
Beverly Sills, singer, born 1929 in Brooklyn, NY

continued →

THE KENNEDY CENTER HONORS continued

1986
Lucille Ball, actress, born 1911 in Jamestown, NY
Ray Charles, musician, born 1930 in Albany, GA
Hume Cronyn, actor, born 1911 in London, Ontario, Canada
Jessica Tandy, actress, born 1909 in London, England
Yehudi Menuhin, violinist, born 1916 in New York City
Antony Tudor, choreographer, born 1909 in London, England

1987
Perry Como, singer, born 1913 in Canonsburg, PA
Bette Davis, actress, born 1908 in Lowell, MA
Sammy Davis, Jr., entertainer, born 1925 in New York City
Nathan Milstein, violinist, born 1904 in Odessa, Russia
Alwin Nikolais, choreographer-director, composer, designer, born 1912 in Southington, CT

1988
Alvin Ailey, choreographer, born 1931 in Rogers, TX
George Burns, actor, born 1896 in New York City
Myrna Loy, actress, born 1905 in Helena, MT
Alexander Schneider, violinist, born 1908 in Vilna, Poland
Roger L. Stevens, founder of the National Endowment for the Arts and the Kennedy Center

1989
Harry Belafonte, singer/actor, born 1927 in New York City
Claudette Colbert, actress, born 1903 in Paris, France
Alexandra Danilova, dancer, born 1904 in St. Petersburg, Russia
Mary Martin, actress/singer, born 1913 in Weatherford, TX
William Schuman, composer/teacher, born 1910 in New York City

Source: The John F. Kennedy Center For The Performing Arts. Washington, DC 20566.

VOLUME XIII CUMULATIVE INDEX *(For the seven issues September 1989- March 1990.)*

Monthly abbreviations are: S, O, N, D, Ja, F, Mr, Ap, My, Je. A reference of S5 means September issue, page 5. PROFILES pages are indexed, and so, also are the individual items in them. A PROFILES (P) item on drug use in the November issue, page 18 would be indexed DRUGS: Use (P), N18, OPINION pages (O) are indexed and so are the items in them.

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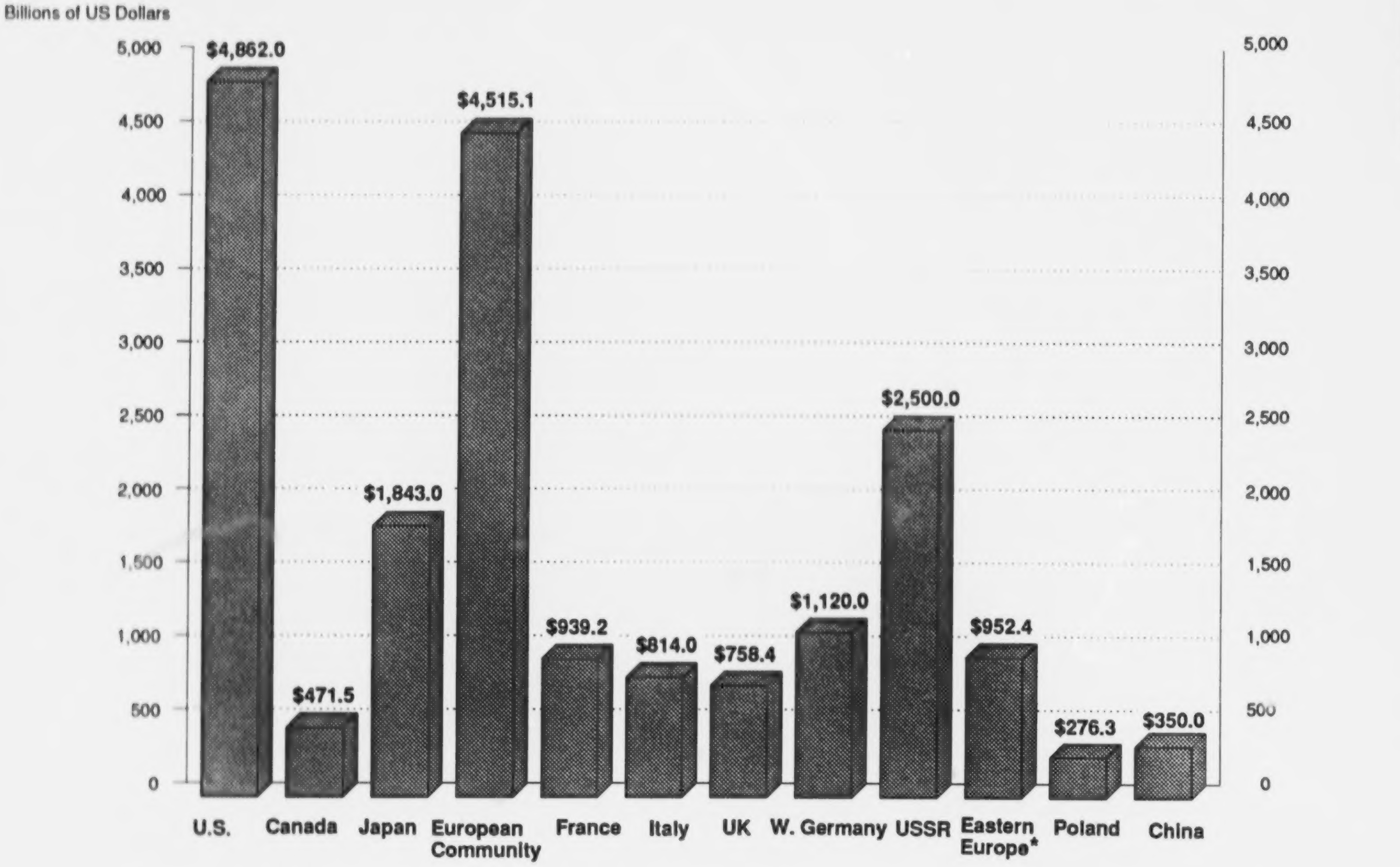
BIGGER BY FAR:
Estimated Gross National Product For 1988, In Billions US$.



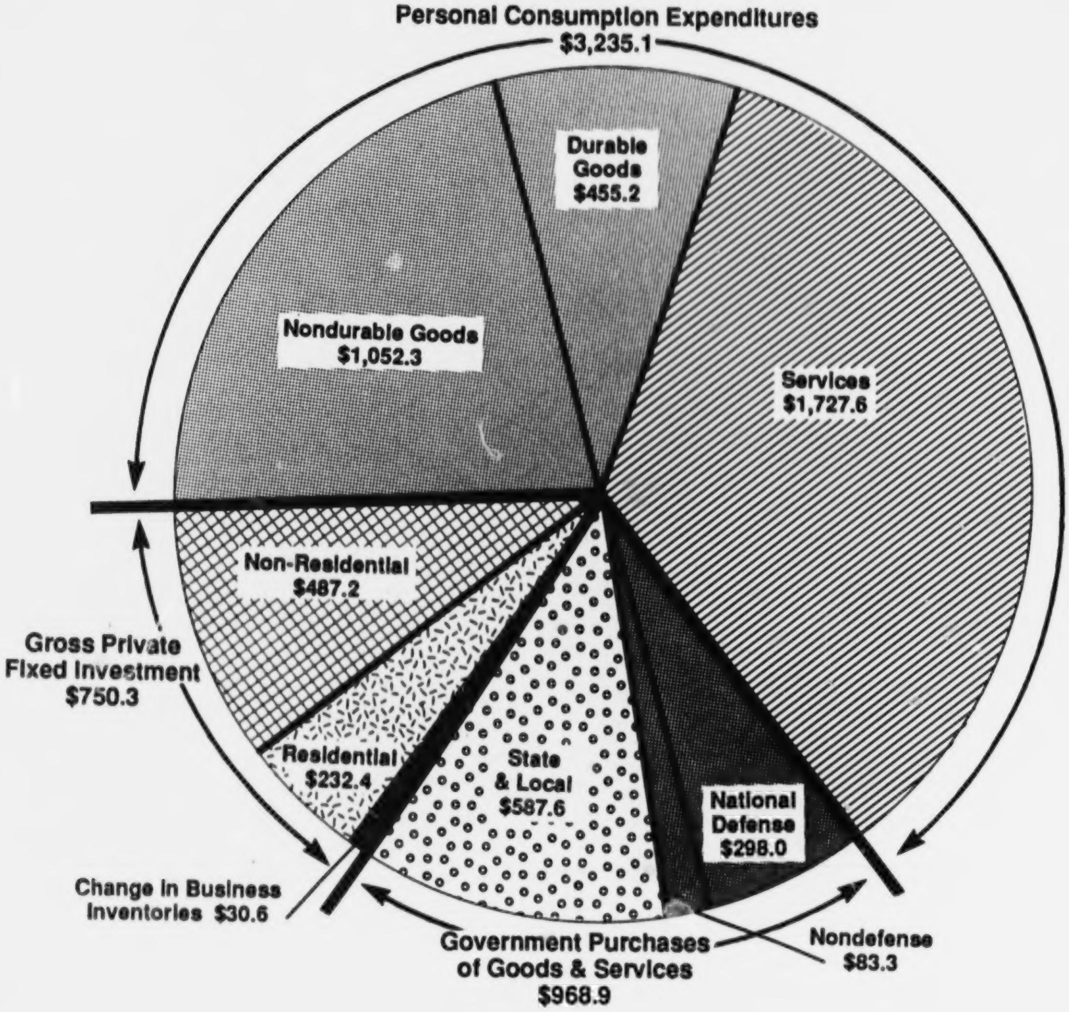
* Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Poland, Romania

World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Central Intelligence Agency's The World Factbook 1989.

U.S. GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT IN 1988

The Major constituent Parts of $4,880.6 Billion

All figures billions of dollars



Above Figures Total . . . .$4,954.3 billion

Imports of Goods & Services	**$621.3**
Exports of Goods & Serivces	**$547.7**
	– $ 73.7
Net Balance of Exports	

so, – 73.7

$4,880.6 billion

World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of Economic Analysis. Survey of Current Business. September 1989. Table 1.1, p. 3.

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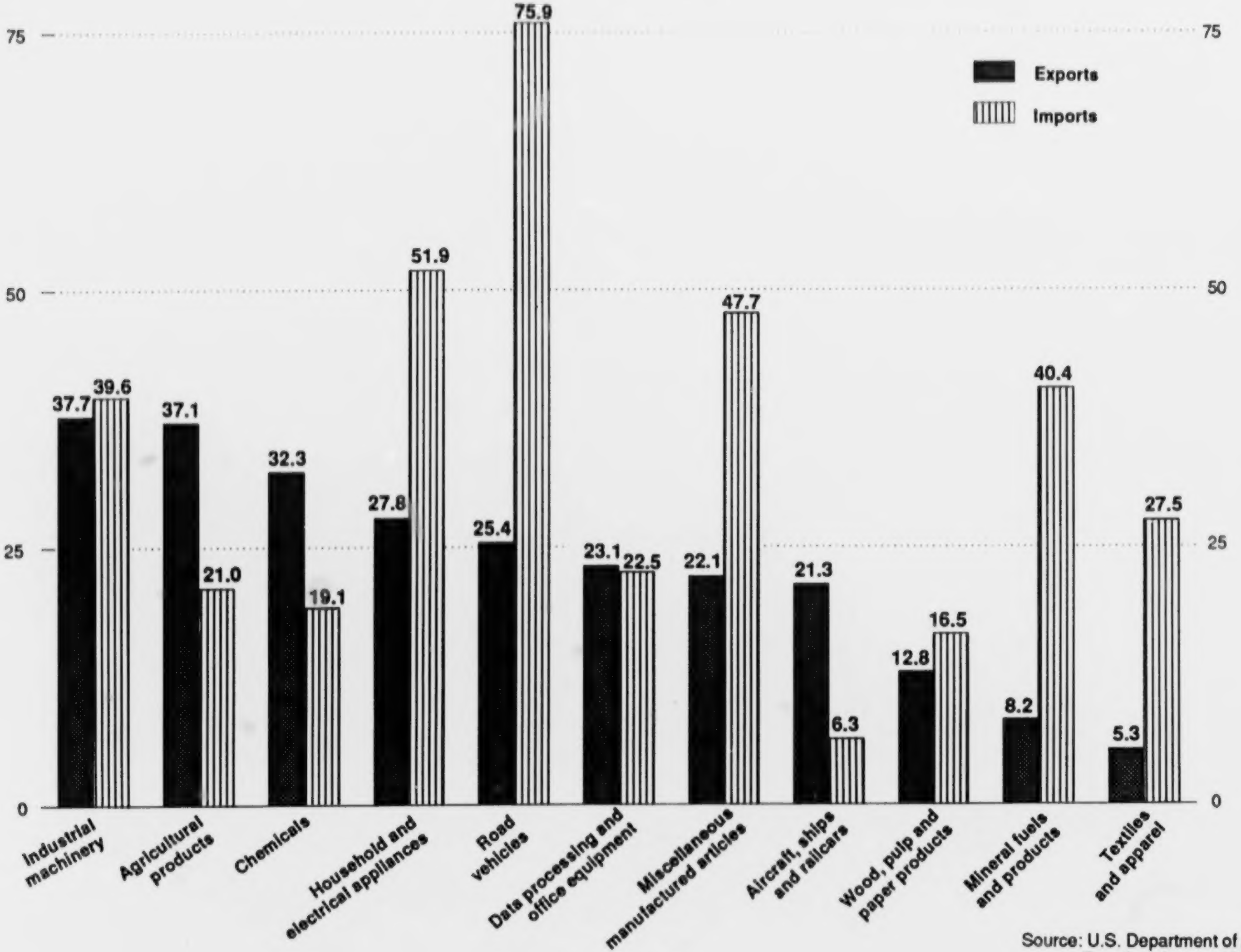
AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS ARE ONE OF THE LARGEST SEGMENTS OF U.S. EXPORTS AND HAVE THE LARGEST POSITIVE TRADE BALANCE

--- *$ billions, calendar year 1988* ---



Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture.
Farmline, August 1989. P.16.

OVERVIEW OF U.S. TRADE WITH THE WORLD

The U.S. merchandise trade deficit (including foreign merchandise and military-type goods) declined in 1988 as exports grew more rapidly than imports. On an exports f.a.s./imports Customs basis, the deficit fell from $152 billion in 1987 to $120 billion in 1988.

Total U.S. exports grew 27 percent to total $322 billion in 1988. Overall U.S. export growth was boosted by strong manufactures and agriculture sectors.

--Sales of manufactured goods gained 28 percent in 1988. Among manufactured exports, shipments of chemicals, aircraft, passenger cars, automotive parts for assembly, ADP and office equipment, and electronic components were particularly expansive. In addition, exports of non-monetary gold, mainly to Taiwan, and undocumented shipments to Canada rose sharply.

--Sales of agricultural commodities rose 29 percent in 1988. The expansion was broadly based, with especially large increases in wheat, corn, soybean, and animal feed exports.

--Exports of crude materials, particularly forestry products and coal, also grew substantially in 1988.

--Canada, Japan, Mexico, the United Kingdom, and West Germany were the top markets for U.S. exports, accounting collectively for more than 50 percent of total exports in 1988.

U.S. imports increased to $442 billion in 1988, 9 percent above the 1987 level. Imports in 1988 were 37 percent greater than exports, down from 61 percent 2 years ago.

--U.S. purchases of manufactured goods continued to account for most of the increase in total imports. Arrivals of electrical machinery, ADP equipment and office machinery, and many other types of machinery showed large increases, as did imports of chemicals, automotive parts, steel, and passenger cars from Canada. Several products (including automobiles from Europe and Japan and clothing), which in previous years contributed significantly to the growth in manufactures imports, declined in 1988.

--Imports of petroleum and products declined 8 percent in value due to import price declines, as volume grew 11 percent.

The United States recorded trade deficits with all three major world regions in 1988, but the deficits with these regions declined from year-earlier levels. The trade deficit with the developed countries shrank to $72 billion, the deficit with the developing countries (LDCs) to $46 billion, and the deficit with the centrally planned economies to $2 billion.

Bilateral trade with most of the major trading partners was in deficit during 1988. The sum of the deficits with the 35 countries with which the United States recorded the largest trade deficits amounted to $143 billion.

--The five countries with the largest deficits in U.S. bilateral trade in 1988 were Japan ($52 billion), Taiwan ($13 billion), West Germany ($12 billion), Canada ($11 billion), and South Korea ($9 billion).

continued

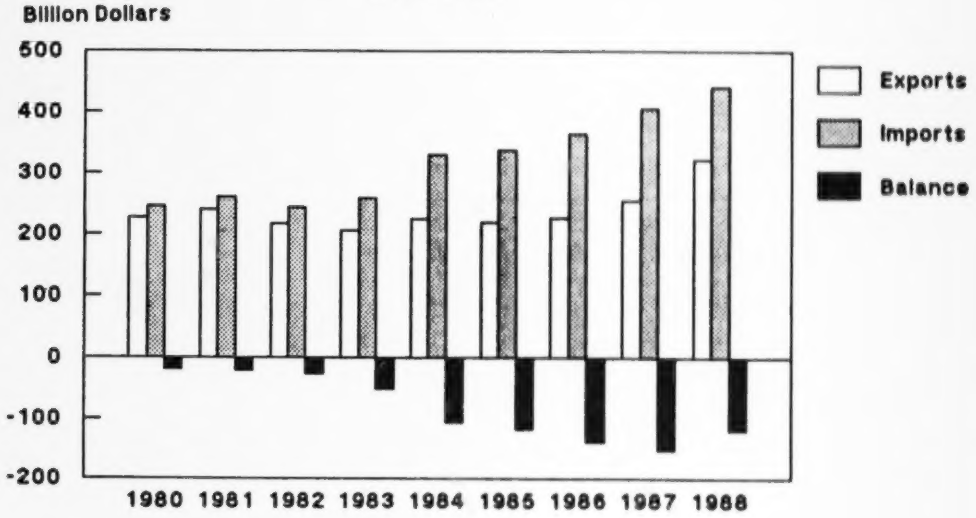
TRADE OVERVIEW continued

--U.S. bilateral trade deficits with many countries of the world improved during 1988. Particularly large improvements were recorded with Japan, Taiwan, West Germany, and Mexico. The trade balance with the United Kingdom, which was in deficit by $3 billion in 1987, shifted to a small surplus in 1988.

In 1988, the United States recorded trade surpluses with more than half of the countries of the world. During this period, the sum of the surpluses with the 35 countries with which the United States recorded the largest trade surpluses amounted to $25 billion.

--The five countries with the largest surpluses in U.S. bilateral trade in 1988 were the Netherlands ($6 billion), Australia ($3 billion), Belgium and Luxembourg ($3 billion), USSR ($2 billion), and Egypt ($2 billion). ◆

U.S. Trade With The World
1980-1988



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Office of Trade and Investment Analysis, 1988 U.S. Foreign Trade Highlights. Pp. 61 & 62.

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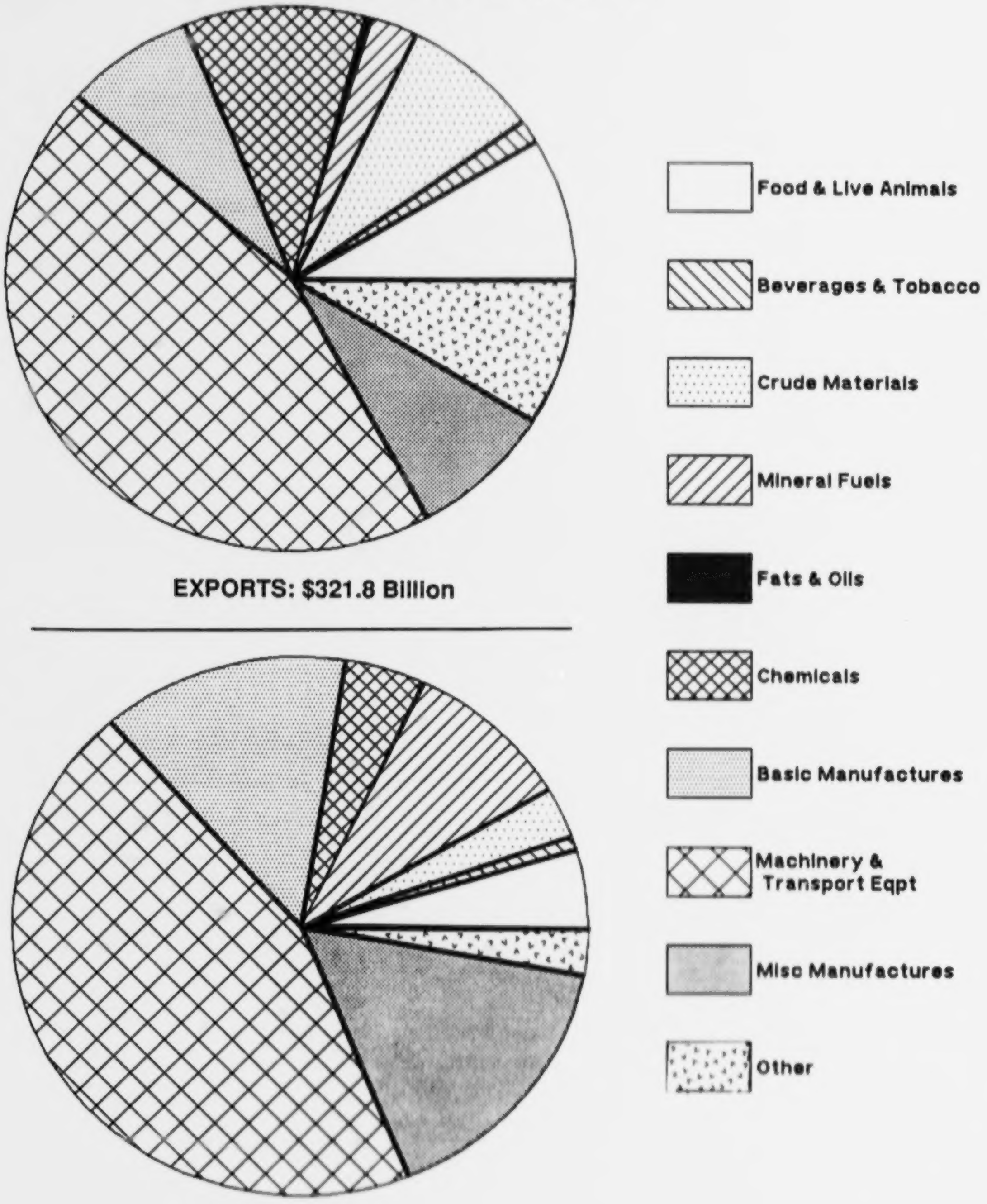
COMPOSITION OF U.S. MERCHANDISE TRADE WITH THE WORLD, 1988



EXPORTS: $321.8 Billion

IMPORTS: $441.6 Billion

Source; U.S. Department of Commerce. Office of Trade and Investment Analysis. 1988 U.S. Foreign Trade Highlights, p.63.

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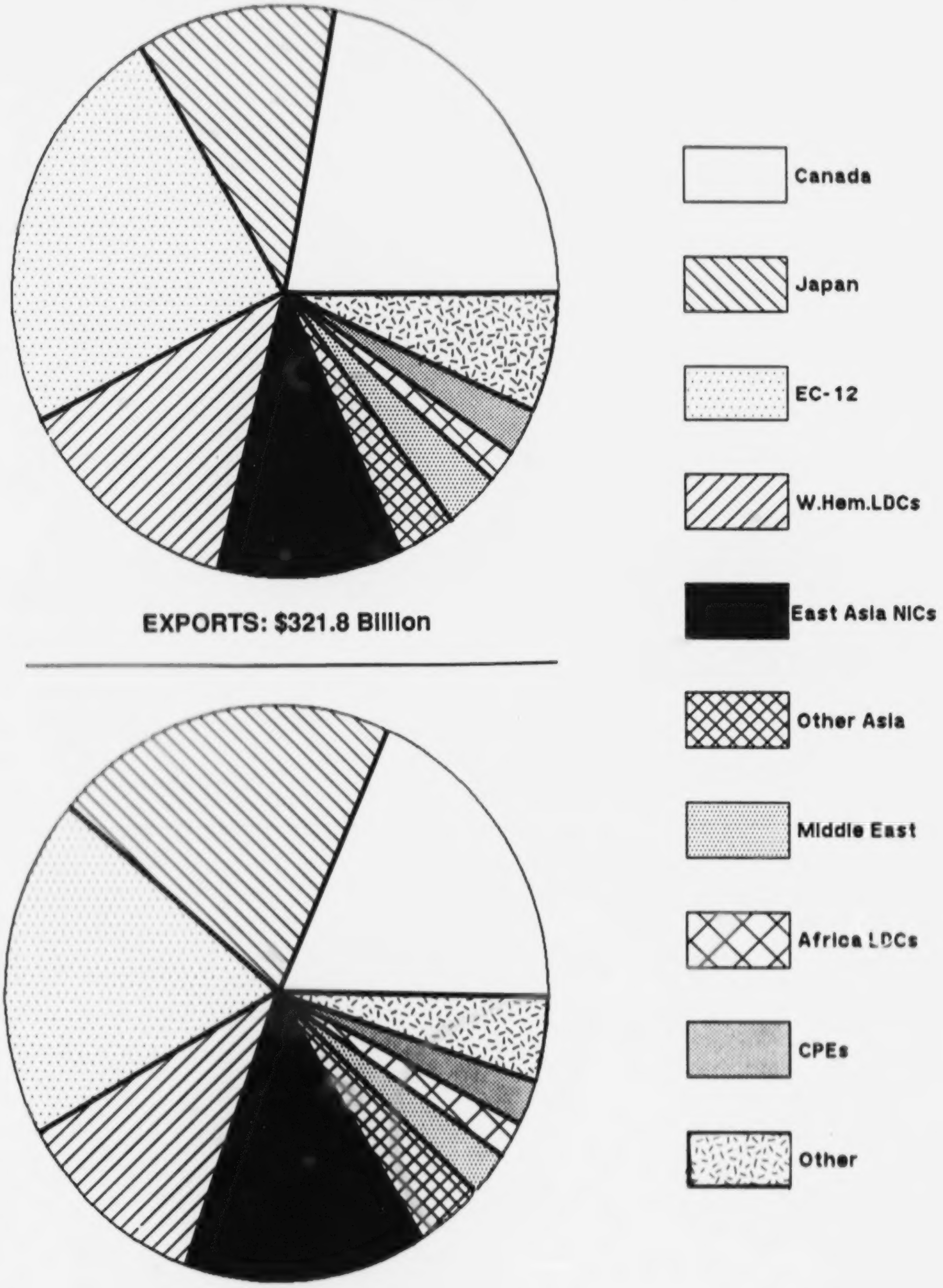
DIRECTION OF U.S. TRADE WITH THE WORLD, 1988



EXPORTS: $321.8 Billion

IMPORTS: $441.6 Billion

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. Office of Trade and Investment Analysis. 1988 U.S. Foreign Trade Highlights, p.64.

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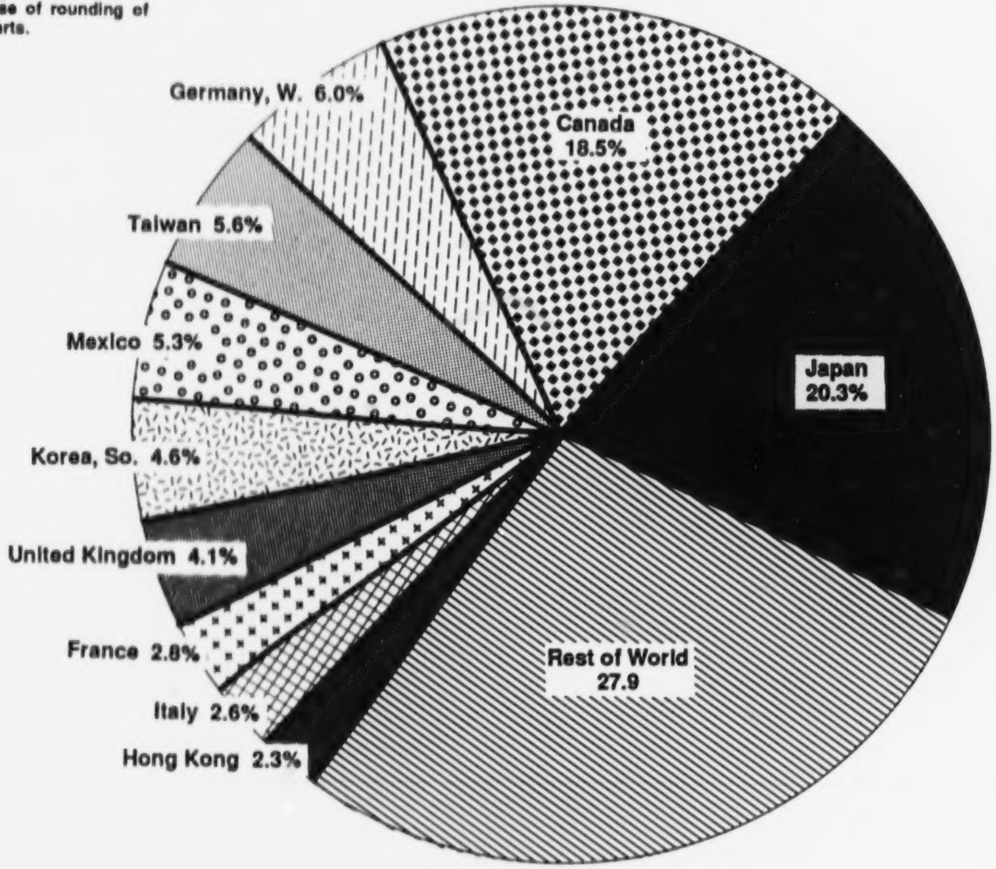
THE TOP SUPPLIERS OF U.S. MERCHANDISE IMPORTS IN 1988

(General Imports, Customs; Millions of Dollars)

Percentage figures do not sum to 100 because of rounding of constituent parts.



Total: 441,574,000,000

	Millions of Dollars	Percent of Total
Japan	$89,802	20.3%
Canada	81,496	18.5
Germany, W.	26,503	6.0
Taiwan	24,804	5.6
Mexico	23,277	5.3
Korea, So.	20,189	4.6
United Kingdom	18,042	4.1
France	12,217	2.8
Italy	11,611	2.6
Hong Kong	10,243	2.3

	Millions of Dollars	Percent of Total
Brazil	9,324	2.1
China	8,512	1.9
Singapore	7,996	1.8
Saudi Arabia	5,594	1.3
Venezuela	5,228	1.2
Sweden	4,995	1.1
Switzerland	4,638	1.1
Netherlands	4,587	1.0
Belgium/Luxembourg	4,518	1.0
Malaysia	3,711	0.8
All Others		14.6

World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Department of Commerce. International Trade Administration. Office of Trade and Investment Analysis. 1988 U.S. Foreign Trade Highlights. Pp. 87 & 108.

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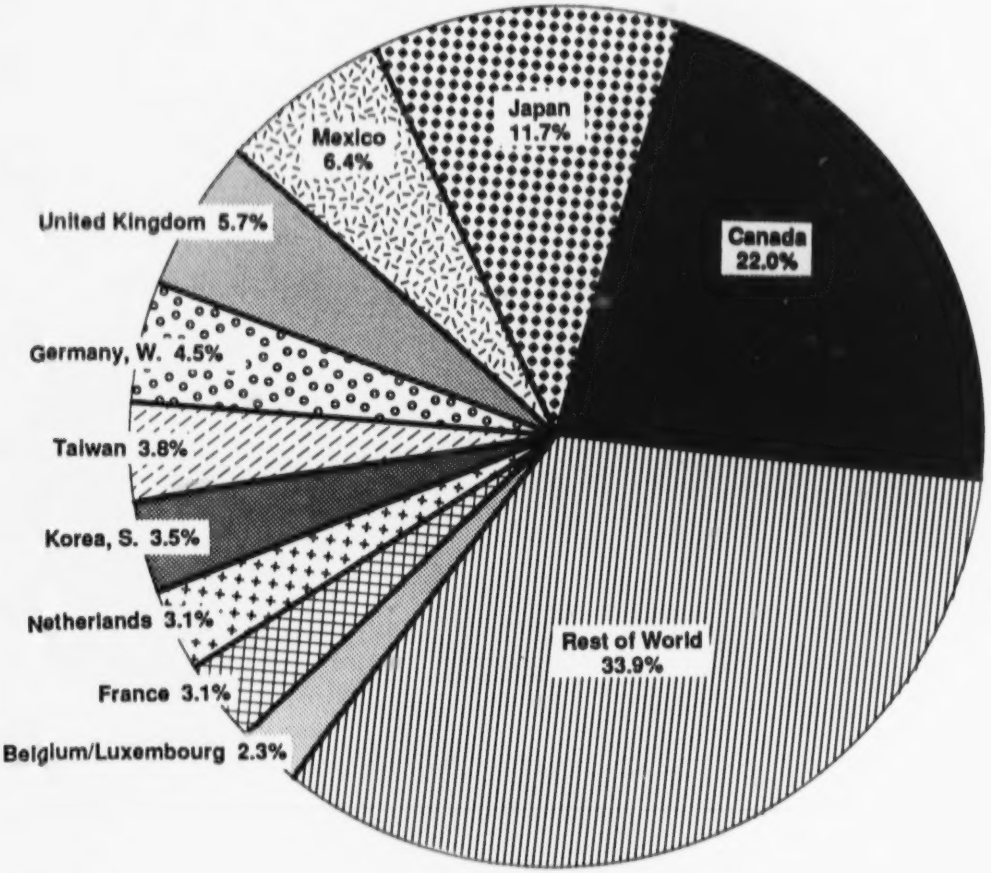
THE TOP PURCHASERS OF U.S. MERCHANDISE EXPORTS IN 1988

(Domestic and Foreign Merchandise, F.a.s.; Millions of Dollars)



Total: $321,813,000,000

	Millions of Dollars	Percent of Total		Millions of Dollars	Percent of Total
Canada	$70,862	22.0%	Australia	$6,981	2.2%
Japan	37,732	11.7	Italy	6,782	2.1
Mexico	20,643	6.4	Singapore	5,770	1.8
United Kingdom	18,404	5.7	Hong Kong	5,691	1.8
Germany, W.	14,331	4.5	China	5,039	1.6
Taiwan	12,131	3.8	Venezuela	4,611	1.4
Korea, S.	11,290	3.5	Brazil	4,289	1.3
Netherlands	10,095	3.1	Spain	4,217	1.3
France	10,085	3.1	Switzerland	4,207	1.3
Belgium/Luxembourg	7,405	2.3	Saudi Arabia	3,799	1.2
			All Others		17.9

World Eagle chart. Data from U.S. Department of Commerce. International Trade Administration. Office of Trade and Investment Analysis. 1988 U.S. Foreign Trade Highlights. Pp. 82 & 107.

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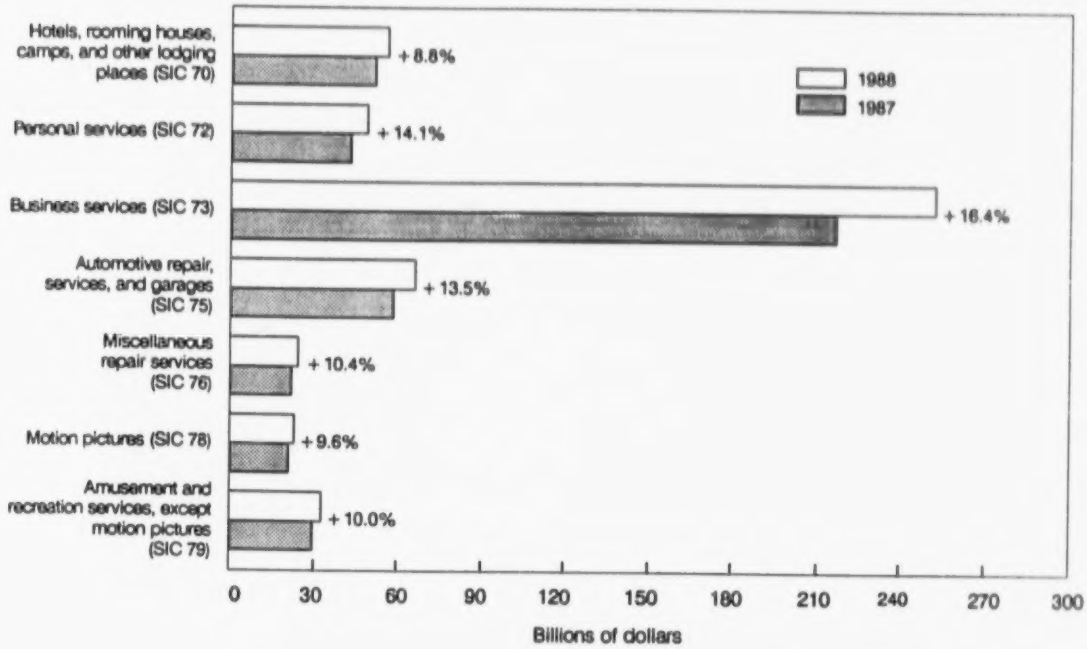
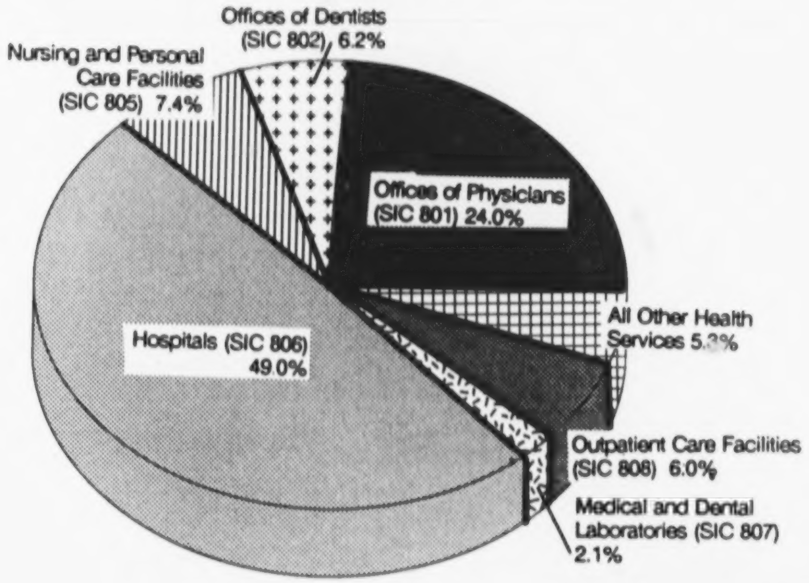
ESTIMATED ANNUAL RECEIPTS OF SELECTED SERVICE INDUSTRIES: 1987 and 1988



ESTIMATED PERCENTAGES OF HEALTH SERVICES RECEIPTS AND REVENUES, BY COMPONENT INDUSTRIES



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. 1988 Service Annual Survey. BS-88-01. Pages 3 & 8.

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

The following is reprinted from U.S. Department of State, Bureau of Public Affairs, Gist, November 1989 (received January 27, 1990). Gist is termed "A quick reference aid on U.S. foreign relations. Not a comprehensive policy statement."

Background: The European Community (EC), formally known as the European Communities, is the cornerstone of West European unity. It was created in 1967 by the merger of the European Coal and Steel Community, established in 1951, with the European Economic Community (Common Market) and the European Atomic Energy Community (EURATOM), established in 1957. It comprises: a dual executive--the European Commission, which initiates and implements EC policy, and the Council of Ministers, which is the EC's main decisionmaking body; the European Parliament, the only multinational European institution directly elected by the European people; the Court of Justice, the EC's supreme court; and the Economic and Social Committee, which represents employers and unions as well as consumers and farmers. The primary aim of the EC is to integrate the economies of its 12 members. It is currently working to develop a single, integrated market by 1992. The 1988 preliminary statistics for the EC show a combined population of 324.8 million, a GNP of $4,711 billion, and a per capita GNP of $14,498. US imports from the 12 represented 19.3% of US world imports; US exports to them were 23.7% of US world exports.

SELECTED ECONOMIC DATA FOR EC (12), 1988

	GNP		Unemployment	US Trade with EC (12)			
	Total (billion dollars)	Per Capita (dollars)	Percent of labor force	Imports (billion dollars)	Percent of world imports	Exports (billion dollars)	Percent of world exports
Belgium	147	14,859	10.5	} 4.5	} 1.0	} 7.4	} 2.3
Luxembourg	7	17,838	1.5				
Denmark	104	20,195	8.5	1.7	0.4	1.0	0.3
France	933	16,691	10.3	12.2	2.8	10.1	3.2
Fed Rep of Germany	1,218	19,907	7.8	26.5	6.0	14.3	4.5
Greece	53	5,255	7.5	0.5	0.1	0.6	0.2
Ireland	28	7,797	16.5	1.4	0.3	2.2	0.7
Italy	810	14,095	11.3	11.6	2.6	6.8	2.1
Netherlands	226	15,312	12.5	4.6	1.0	10.1	3.2
Portugal	39	3,756	6.5	0.7	0.2	0.8	0.2
Spain	338	8,645	19.5	3.2	0.7	4.2	1.3
UK	808	14,152	8.5	18.0	4.1	18.4	5.7
Total EC (12)	4,711	14,498	10.5	84.9	19.3	75.9	23.7

	EC (12) Trade with the US				US Direct Investment (billion dollars)	Foreign Direct Investments in the US (billon dollars)	Population mid-year (millions)
	Import (billion dollars)	Percent of world imports	Exports (billion dollars	Percent of world exports			
Belgium	} 3.9	} 4.3	} 4.6	} 5.0	7.2	4.0	9.9
Luxembourg					0.8	0.5	0.4
Denmark	1.6	6.0	1.6	6.0	1.2	*	5.1
France	13.7	7.7	11.9	7.3	12.5	11.4	55.9
Fed Rep of Germany	16.6	6.5	26.0	7.9	21.7	23.8	61.2
Greece	0.7	4.4	0.5	7.1	0.2	*	10.0
Ireland	2.5	15.9	1.4	7.7	5.7	*	3.5
Italy	7.8	5.6	11.5	8.9	9.1	0.7	57.4
Netherlands	7.6	7.6	4.4	4.3	15.4	49.0	14.8
Portugal	0.7	4.4	0.6	6.0	0.4	*	10.4
Spain	5.4	8.9	3.2	7.9	4.4	*	39.1
UK	19.3	10.2	18.8	13.0	48.0	101.9	57.1
Total EC (12)	79.8	7.3	84.5	8.0	126.6	193.9	324.8
EC (12) World Trade	1,086.0		1,062.5			* 2.6 total for the five countries	
Intra EC (12)	626.5		634.0				
Other	459.5	17.4	428.5	19.7			

continued ↗

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY continued

EC Organization and Responsibilities: The European Commission is supranational, having primary responsibility for initiating and implementing EC policy in areas that fall under the EC treaties (for example, the internal market; external trade, including that with the US; and agricultural policy). The Council of Ministers, representing member states, is the EC's highest decisionmaking authority and occupies the pre-eminent position in the current institutional power balance. The directly elected European Parliament is a consultative body with few powers except in matters affecting the EC budget, although its role is growing.

In recent years, the EC has been taking increasing responsibility in areas such as monetary coordination and environmental and narcotics policy, formerly reserved to individual member states. In July 1989, the EC was designated by the seven economic summit partners to play a coordinating role for Western assistance to Poland and Hungary.

The EC Presidency and European Political Cooperation: Every January and July, the presidency of the Council of Ministers rotates. The presidency country presides at all meeting of the 12 member states and serves as spokesman in dealing with third countries on intergovernmental matters, including efforts to coordinate the foreign policies of the member states. This foreign policy coordination process, known as European Political Cooperation, is one of seeking consensus for joint action by the 12 members on international political issues, such as the Middle East peace process, South Africa, and Central American issues.

US-EC Relations: The US Economic Relationship With The EC Is Enormous: the EC is our largest trading partner, with 1988 two-way trade totaling $161 billion. The US and the EC also are the largest investors in each other's economies. The US maintains a dialogue on foreign policy issues with the community through the EC presidency country. New areas of cooperation, such as the environment, are under consideration. Much bilateral attention has recently been devoted to the EC's single market (1992) program. The US has consistently supported economic and political integration in Europe; in a May 1989 speech, President Bush stated that a strong, united Europe means a strong America. A truly integrated market with a single set of standards and regulations and a removal of restrictions on the movement of goods, services, and people would not only spur growth and efficiency in Europe, but also would provide increased opportunities for US companies. The US believes it is essential that the single market program be implemented in an open fashion and not erect new trade barriers. Many of the trade problems between the US and the EC are in agriculture; EC subsidies have resulted in lost US sales in the community and other countries. Other trade concerns include Airbus subsidies by certain EC governments, issues related to foreign investment, and limited US access to some EC telecommunications markets.

Data Sources and Notes: The economic statistics were collected by the Department of State's Bureau of Intelligence and Research, based on figures from the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, the US Department of Commerce, and the UN. Calculations for per capita GNP and percentages are based on unrounded data. Totals for per capita GNP and some percentage figure totals are weighted. In US trade with the EC, imports and exports are f.o.b. In EC trade with the US, imports are c.i.f. and exports are f.o.b. The data are in 1988 prices and 1988 exchange rates. ◆

SINGLENESS IN AMERICA

The number of single adults has increased by almost 75 percent over the past two decades.

Adults are more likely to be single today than they were in 1970. They are marrying for the first time much later than the previous generation and many are becoming single again because of divorce or the death of their spouses. In 1970, 38 million, or 28 percent, of all adults 18 years and older were single (never-married, divorced, or widowed); by 1988, this number had grown to 66 million, or 37 percent of adults.

Singleness, in most instances, is a temporary state--about 90 percent of people will eventually marry and, of those who divorce, about 70 percent will remarry.

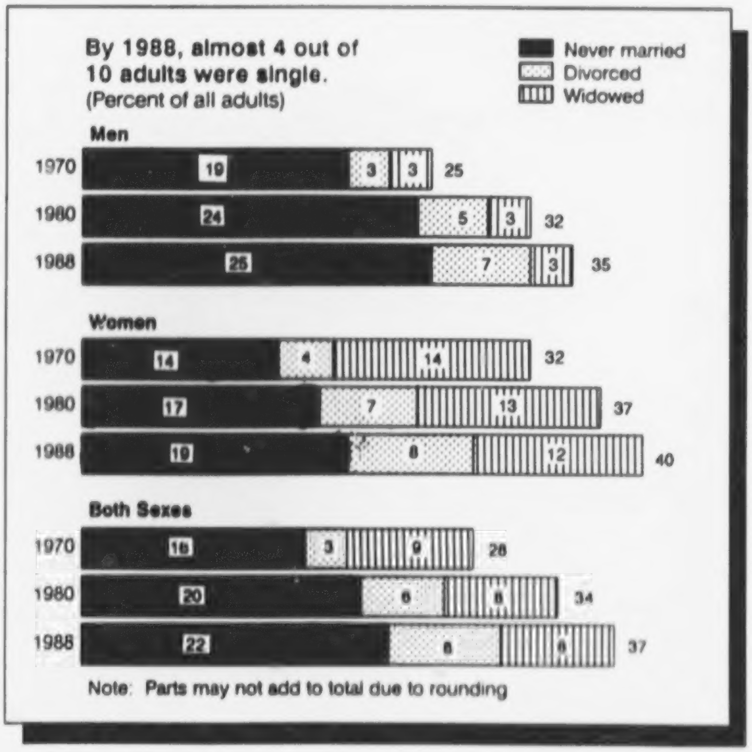
Persons are marrying later.

From 1955 to 1975, the estimated median age at first marriage gradually moved upward, increasing by just under 1 year for both men and women. Since 1975, however, the median age had increased by about 2 1/2 years for both sexes. Today, the median ages at first marriage--25.9 for men and 23.6 for women--are similar to those seen at the turn of the century.

The proportions of men and women in their twenties and early thirties who have never married have also grown substantially. Between 1970 and 1988, the proportions never married among 20- to 24-year-olds grew by 70 percent for women and by over 40 percent for men. Six of 10 women and nearly 8 of 10 men aged 20 to 24 had not yet married in 1988. The proportions never married among 25- to 29-year-olds tripled for women and more than doubled for men during the 1970-88 period and almost tripled among men and women 30 to 34 years old.

More young adults are living at home with their parents.

Fifty-four percent of adults 18 to 24 years old lived in their parents' homes in 1988, up from 48 percent in 1980 and 47 percent in 1970. This change is primarily a shift away from maintaining a family of one's own at a young age rather than a shift away from living independently of parents before forming a family. One factor behind this increase is the high cost of housing. In 1980, the average monthly income of young adults was $539, but the monthly median gross rent throughout the Nation was $241,


By 1988, almost 4 out of 10 adults were single.
(Percent of all adults)

Note: Parts may not add to total due to rounding

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Statistical Brief SB-4-89 issued November 1989.

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continued

SINGLENESS continued

or 45 percent of their average income, and the median cost of housing for owners was $367, or 68 percent of the average income of young adults. By 1985 (the latest year for which data are available), median gross rent had reached 57 percent of the average monthly income of young adults and owners' housing costs had jumped to 89 percent.

More marriages are ending in divorce.

Divorce increased greatly during the 1960's and 1970's. By 1985, almost one-fourth of persons who had ever been married had experienced a divorce. Teenage marriages had the highest risk of divorce: among women who married as teenagers, 32 percent had divorced as of 1985, up from 20 percent in 1970.

And fewer children live with two parents.

About one-half of all divorces involve children. Over 1 million children have been involved in divorce each year since 1972. In 1988, one-fourth of all children under 18 years old lived with a single parent, double the proportion in 1970. Divorce and out-of-wedlock childbearing are the main reasons that children live with a single parent: 38 percent of children living with one parent were with a divorced parent and 31 percent were living with a parent who had never been married.

The majority of the elderly are women and most of them are single.

Among elderly women, most are widows: 49 percent of elderly women, compared with only 14 percent of elderly men. Older women's single status is more likely to be permanent because women live longer than men and are less likely to remarry after being widowed. In contrast, the majority of elderly men are married (78 percent). As a consequence, 41 percent of elderly women live alone, while only 16 percent of elderly men do so.

Elderly women had lower incomes and were thus more likely to be poor than elderly men. The poverty rate for the single elderly was higher than that for the married elderly, and the rates for single elderly women were higher than for their male counterparts.

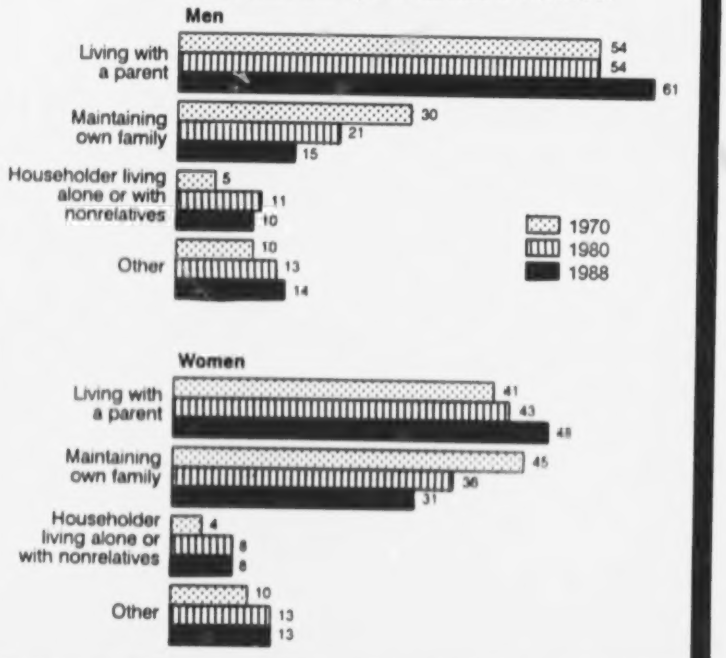
The data shown here were derived primarily from information collected in the Current Population Survey for March of 1970 through 1988.

For information on this topic:

See-

Current Population Reports, Series P-23, No. 162, *Studies in Marriage and the Family*. (For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402. Stock number 803-005-10015-4. $2.50. For telephone orders, call (202) 783-3238.) ❖

Since 1980, the proportion of young adults living with their parents has increased.



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Statistical Brief SB-4-89 issued November 1989.

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SINGLE PARENTS AND THEIR CHILDREN

The number of single parents has increased dramatically.

Between 1970 and 1988, the number of single parents with children under 18 in the home more than doubled from 3.8 million to 9.4 million. This dramatic rise is reflected in the increase of single-parent families as a proportion of all family groups with children: from 13 percent in 1970 to 27 percent in 1988. This increase is one of the most important recent changes in family composition, with major implications for poverty and social welfare programs.

The total number of single parents is made up of those who maintained their own households with their children under 18 (families) and those who lived in someone else's household with their children (subfamilies); about 1 of 5 single parents lived in someone else's household.

Most single parents are White.

Although almost two-thirds (65 percent) of all single parents are White, one-parent situations are more prevalent among Blacks. In 1988, about 59 percent of all Black family groups with children under age 18 present in the home were maintained by single parents versus 22 percent for Whites. Among Hispanics (who may be of any race), 34 percent of family groups with children had only one parent present in 1988.

The vast majority of single parents are mothers.

There were an estimated 8.1 million mother-child family groups in 1988. These mothers accounted for about 87 percent of all single parents, only slightly below their 90 percent share in both 1980 and 1970.

People become single parents by several different paths.

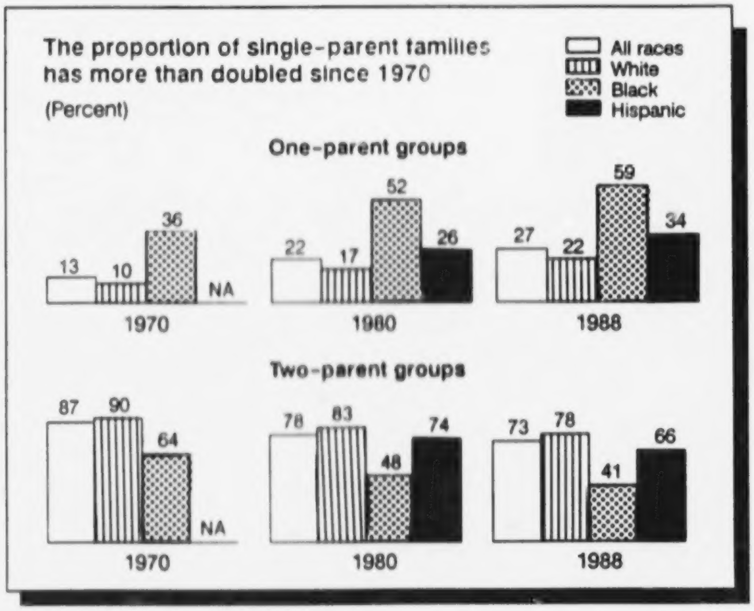
Virtually all one-parent situations are created in 1 of 4 ways: 1) divorce, 2) out-of-wedlock births (usually but not always, these births involve women who have never been married), 3) separation, or 4) widowhood. Mothers who either had never been married or were divorced accounted for 62 percent of all single parents in 1988.

Single parents are younger than those in two-parent families.

The median age of single parents in 1988 was 33.2 years, compared with a median of 37.4 years for parents maintaining two-parent family groups. Single mothers are likely to be younger than single fathers: 32.7 years versus 36.5 years, respectively.

One-fourth of all children lived with one parent.

Of the 63 million children under 18 in 1988, about 15 million (24



The proportion of single-parent families has more than doubled since 1970

(Percent)

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Statistical Brief SB-3-89 issued November 1989.

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continued

SINGLE PARENTS AND THEIR CHILDREN continued

percent) were living with one parent only--a tremendous increase since 1970 when only 8 million or 12 percent of all children lived with one parent. Black children were much more likely than White children to be living with one parent: 54 percent versus 19 percent, respectively, in 1988. These estimates represent the living arrangements of children at the time the data were collected. The number of children who lived with a single parent at any time during their childhood would be much higher.

Single parents are less well-educated.

The parent's educational level is an important aspect of the socioeconomic profile of children and their families. In 1988, the proportion of children living with a parent (i.e., householder or reference person) who had not completed high school was 32 percent among children in single-parent situations versus 17 percent of children in two-parent homes.

Single mothers are likely to face employment problems.

In 1988, about 84 percent of the children living with both parents had a parent who was employed full-time, compared with only 42 percent of those living with the mother alone. Problems securing adequate child care often complicate the single parent's ability to seek steady employment even if jobs are available to match their skills and experience.

Single mothers have low incomes.

About 13.5 million children were living with single mothers, and their average family income (including any child support payments) was $11,989, compared with $23,919 for those children living with their single fathers and $40,067 for children in households where both parents were present. These differences reflect both the greater earning power of single fathers and the fact that many two-parent family groups can rely on the incomes of two working parents.

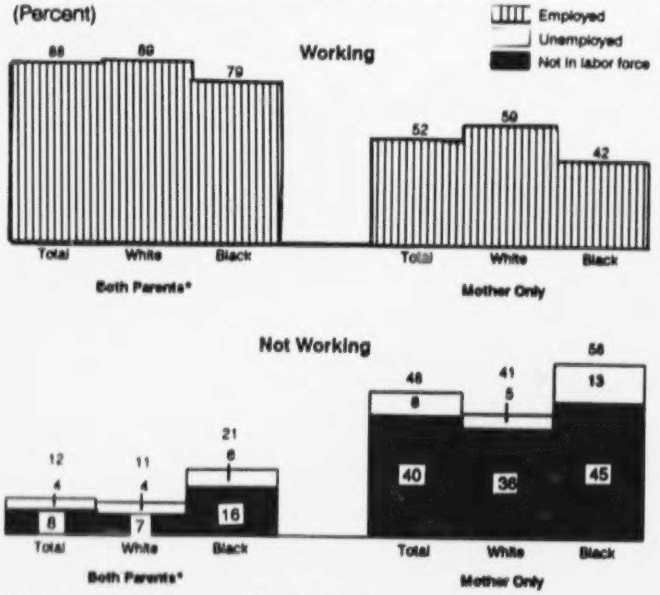
The data in this brief are based primarily on estimates from the Current Population Survey for March 1988 and earlier years.

For information on this topic:

See-

Current Population Reports, Series P-23, No. 162, *Studies in Marriage and the Family*. (For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402. Stock number 803-005-10015-4. $2.50. For telephone orders, call (202) 783-3238.) ◆

Among children living with their mothers only, almost half lived with mothers who did not work.



* Labor force status of householder or reference person

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Statistical Brief SB-3-89 issued November 1989.

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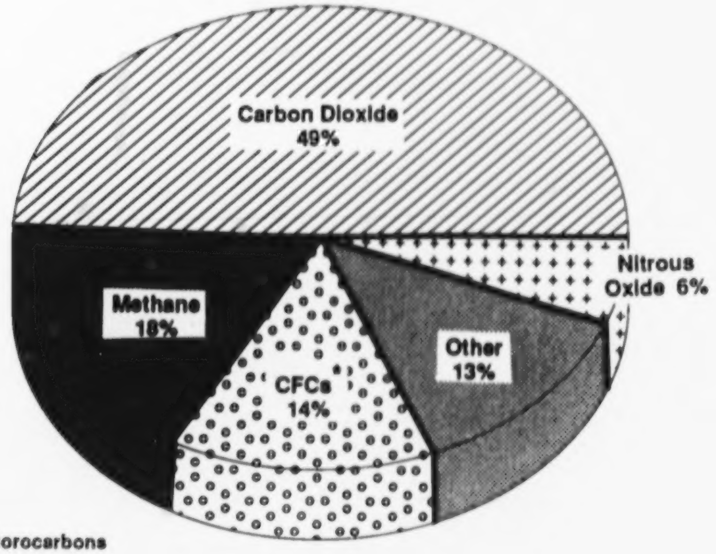
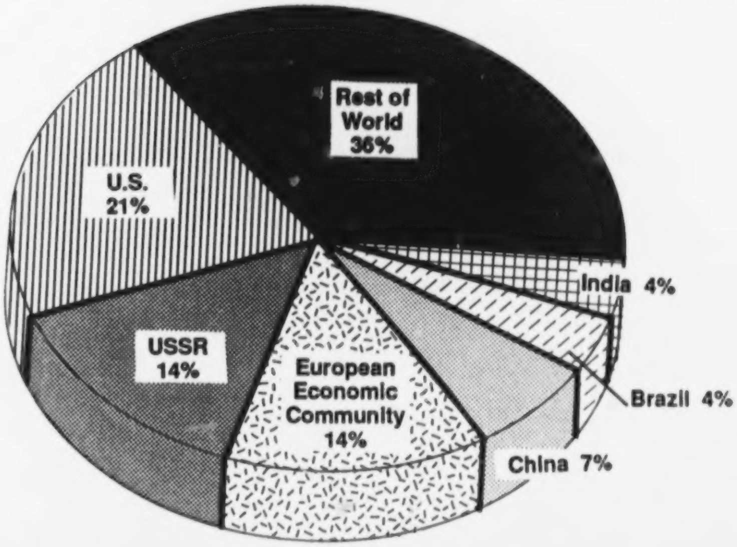
CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE GREENHOUSE EFFECT

Manmade



* Chlorofluorocarbons

Regional



The top chart represents the estimated increase in the Greenhouse Effect due to manmade emissions of Greenhouse gases in the 1980s. The chart is adapted from the work by Dr. James Hansen and his associates at the Goddard Institute for Space Studies. The bottom chart is based on EPA estimates of each region's contribution to manmade emissions of Greenhouse gases.

World Eagle adaptations of charts in the Environmental Projection Agency's EPA Journal, January/February 1989.

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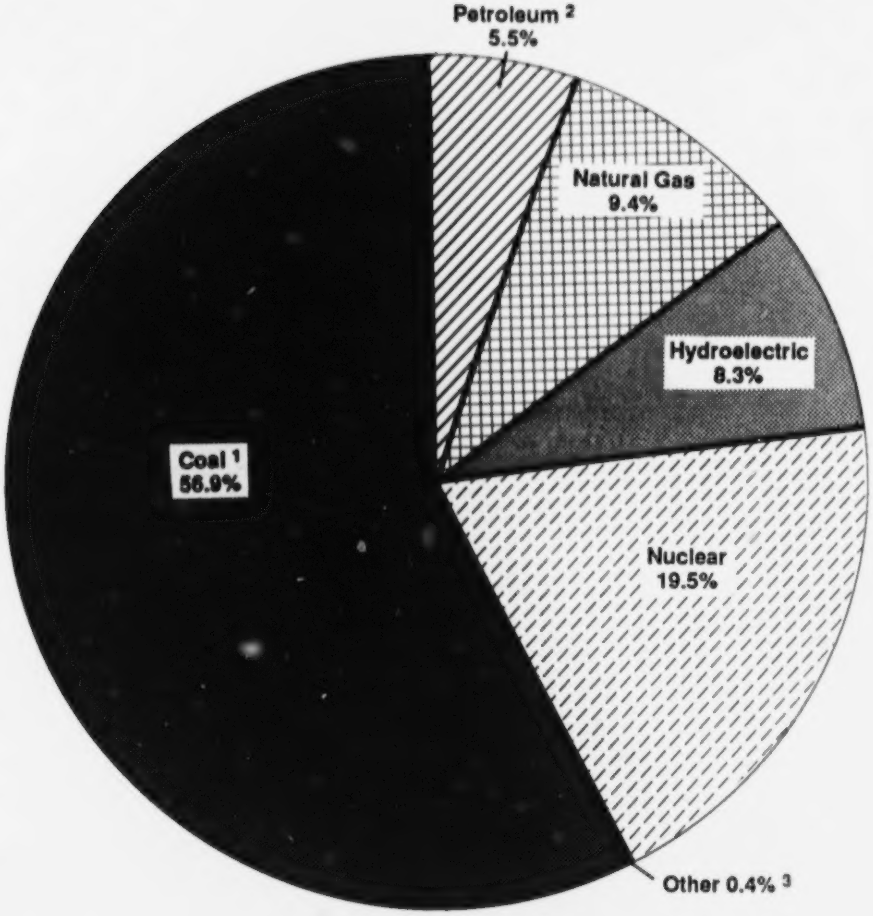
IN 1988, OVER 56% OF ALL OUR ELECTRICITY CAME FROM THE BURNING OF COAL

35.8% of U.S. Consumption of Primary Energy Goes to The Production of Electricity



The Shares of Primary Energy Used to Produce Electricity in the U.S. in 1988

Total Energy Input at Electric Utilities in 1988: 28.657 (Quadrillion (10^{15}) Btu)

[1] Includes lignite, bituminous coal, subbituminous coal, and anthracite.
[2] Includes fuel oil Nos. 2,4,5, and 6, crude oil, kerosene, and petroleum coke.
[3] Other energy sources include geothermal, wood, wind, waste, and solar.

World Eagle Chart. Data from Department of Energy/Energy Information Administration. Monthly Energy Review, June 1989, p. 39, and Electric Power Monthly, June 1989, Table 3, p.11.

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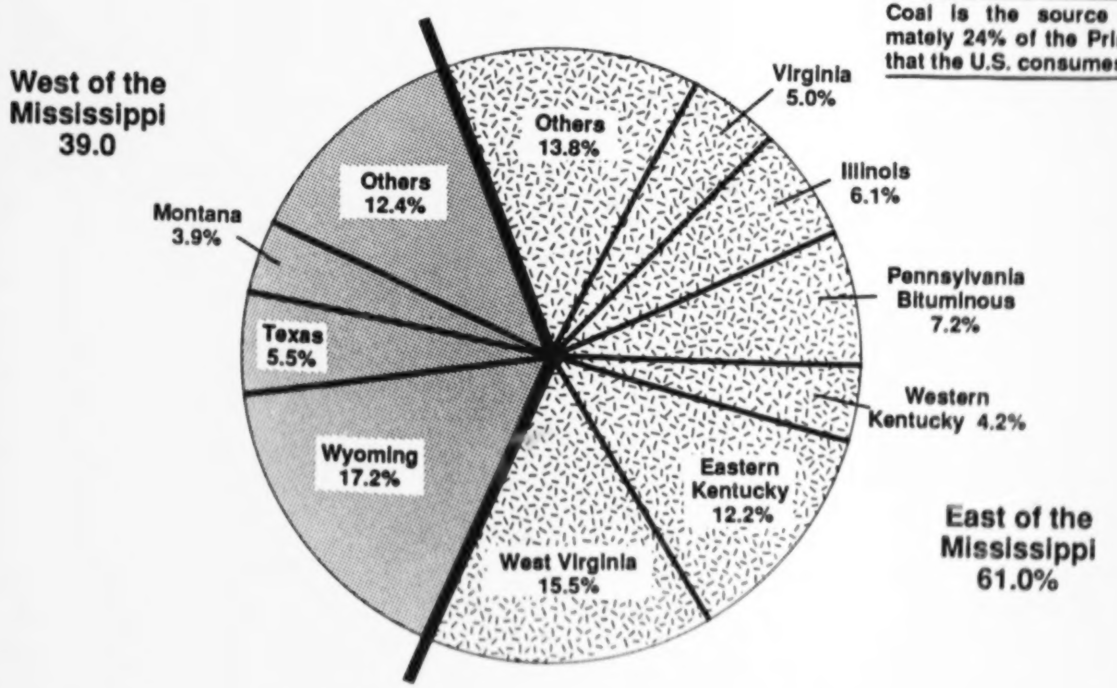
continued

HERE ARE THE STATES THAT PRODUCE THE U.S. COAL SUPPLY

Coal is the source of approximately 24% of the Primary Energy that the U.S. consumes.



U.S. Coal Production by State, 1989

(Preliminary Data)

Bituminous Coal[2] and Lignite (Thousand Short Tons)

West of the Mississippi	379,982
Alaska	1,486
Arizona	12,285
Arkansas	83
California	74
Colorado	17,129
Iowa	438
Kansas	851
Louisiana	2,982
Missouri	3,448
Montana	37,728
New Mexico	23,498
North Dakota	30,881
Oklahoma	1,843
Texas	53,865
Utah	20,560
Washington	4,894
Wyoming	167,938

East of the Mississippi	591,233
Alabama	26,565
Illinois	59,764
Indiana	32,593
Kentucky	160,389
Kentucky, Eastern	119,178
Kentucky, Western	41,212
Maryland	3,241
Ohio	32,537
Pennsylvania Bituminous	70,434
Tennessee	6,023
Virginia	49,099
West Virginia	150,588
Bituminous and lignite Total	971,216
Pennsylvania Anthracite	3,519
U.S. TOTAL	974,735

[2] Also includes subbituminous coal.

Total may not equal sum of components because of independent rounding.

World Eagle chart. Table from U.S. Department of Energy, Weekly Coal Production: Production for Week Ended January 13, 1990.

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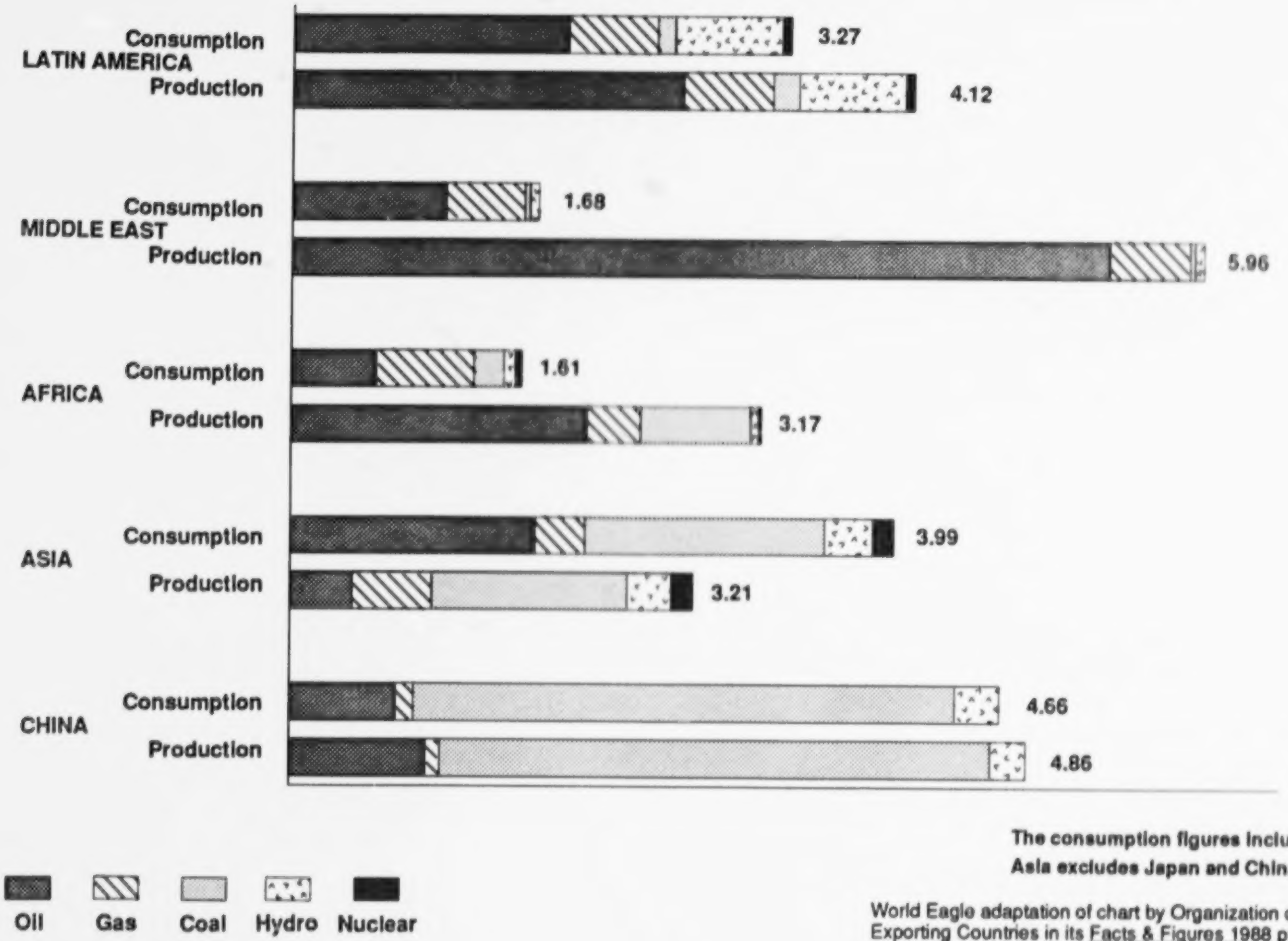
continued

PRIMARY ENERGY COMPARISON BETWEEN REGIONS OF THE WORLD'S DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

--- For The Year 1988 ---

Billion barrels oil equivalent



The consumption figures include bunkers.

Asia excludes Japan and China.

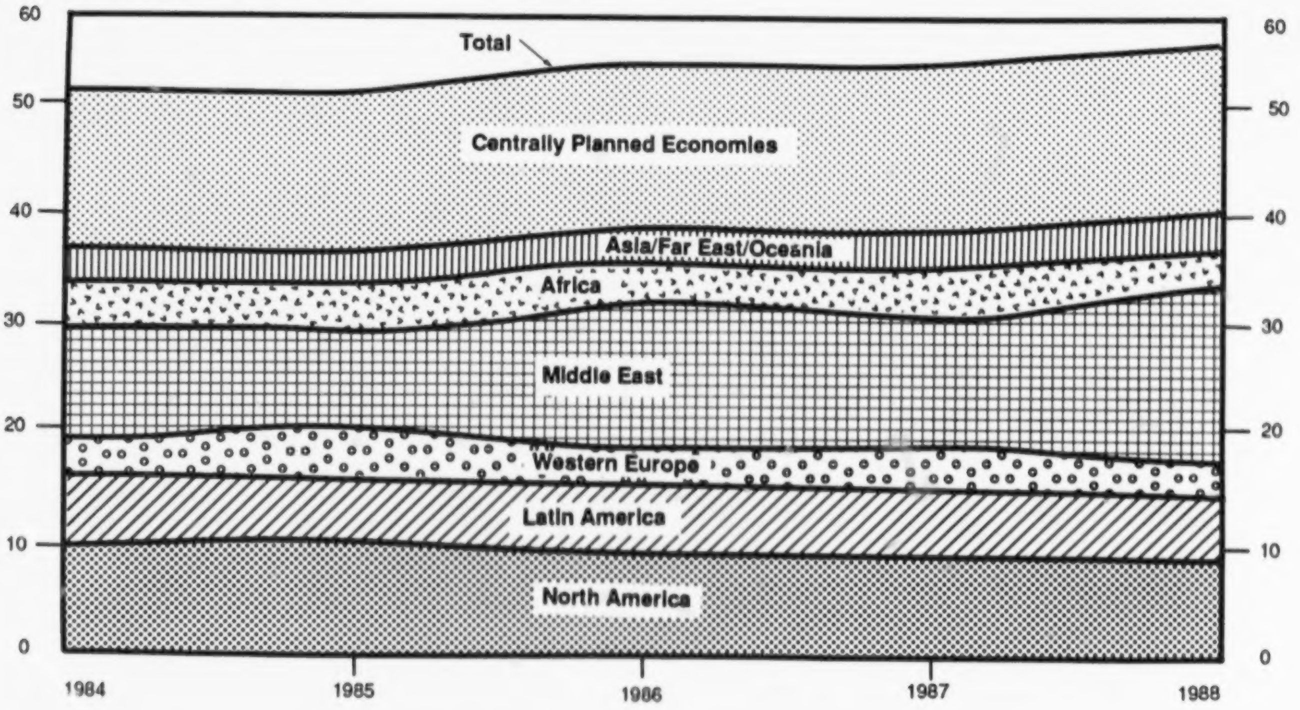
World Eagle adaptation of chart by Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries in its Facts & Figures 1988 published November 1989. P.5.

continued

WORLDWIDE CRUDE OIL PRODUCTION

--- For The Years 1984-1988 ---

Million barrels per day



World Totals (million barrels/day): 1984, 53.5; 1985, 56.3; 1987, 55.4; 1988, 57.9.

In 1988, 42.7% of The Primary Energy The U.S. Consumed Was Petroleum.
38.1% of That Petroleum Was Imported.

World Eagle adaptation of chart by Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries in its Facts & Figures 1988 published November 1989. P.6.

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U.S. CONTRIBUTIONS TO INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS, FY 1988

	U.S. Amount	*Percent*
United Nations, Specialized Agencies, and the International Atomic Energy Agency (assessed budgets):		
United Nations	[2]$147,950,263	25.00
Food and Agriculture Organization	[3]25,000,000	25.00
International Maritime Organization	654,478	5.32
International Atomic Energy Agency	[4]33,816,370	25.93
International Civil Aviation Organization	[5]6,925,644	25.00
Joint Financing Program	677,946	37.13
International Labor Organization	[6]26,709,633	25.00
International Telecommunication Union	5,183,901	7.64
United Nations Industrial Development Organization	[7]12,496,370	25.00
Universal Postal Union	922,173	5.11
World Health Organization	[8]62,855,000	25.00
World Intellectual Property Organization	789,285	5.38
World Meteorological Organization	[9]5,758,124	24.66
United Nations, Specialized Agencies, and the International Atomic Energy Agency	329,739,187	24.02
Peacekeeping:		
United Nations Force in Cyprus: Voluntary	7,312,000	[0]28.78
United Nations Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF) and UNIFIL: Assessed	[11]29,400,000	28.60
Multinational Forces and Observers: Voluntary	24,377,000	33.33
Peacekeeping	61,089,000	29.88
Inter-American Organizations (assessed budgets):		
Organization of American States	[12]38,118,380	66.00
Inter-American Indian Institute	103,422	63.54
Inter-American Institute for Cooperation on Agriculture	[13]11,031,020	61.64
Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission	2,679,000	95.22
Pan American Health Organization	[14]32,557,380	61.29
Pan American Institute of Geography and History	309,152	60.98
Pan American Railway Congress Association	25,000	26.15
Postal Union of the Americas and Spain	104,000	8.04
Inter-American Organizations	84,927,354	63.33
Regional Organizations (assessed budgets):		
NATO Civilian Headquarters (and MBFR)	[15]21,096,614	23.35
North Atlantic Assembly	609,844	23.35
Colombo Plan Council	10,660	4.17
Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development	34,091,384	25.00
South Pacific Commission	796,569	16.83
Regional Organizations	56,605,071	24.12
Other International Organizations (assessed budgets):		
Bureau of International Expositions	22,931	10.42
Commission for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Resources	27,848	3.39
Customs Cooperation Council	[16]1,913,250	25.00
General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade	6,864,030	15.47
Hague Conference on Private International Law	59,314	7.10
International Agency for Research on Cancer	851,224	9.90
International Agreement on the Maintenance of Certain Lights in the Red Sea	57,085	3.13
International Bureau of the Permanent Court of Arbitration	10,856	6.74
International Bureau for the Publication of Customs Tariffs	64,710	5.17
International Bureau of Weights and Measures	485,744	10.00
International Center for the Study of the Preservation and the Restoration of Cultural Property (ICCROM)	454,225	25.00
International Coffee Organization	551,373	13.64
International Commission for the Conservation of Atlantic Tunas	72,011	9.80
International Cotton Advisory Committee	[17]150,635	11.90
International Council for the Exploration of the Seas (ICES)	78,351	5.71
International Council of Scientific Unions and Its Associated Unions	453,465	12.33
International Criminal Police Organization	870,000	4.08
International Hydrographic Organization	61,551	5.06
International Institute for Cotton	1,946,000	69.67
International Institute for the Unification of Private Law	81,278	8.45
International Jute Organization	47,079	9.31
International Lead and Zinc Study Group	32,490	5.33
International Natural Rubber Organization	[18]1,722	13.70
International North Pacific Fisheries Commission	[19]112,082	33.33
International Office of Epizootics	63,000	2.90
International Office of Vine and Wine	[20]13,000	4.05
International Organization for Legal Metrology	71,610	8.50
International Rubber Study Group	59,443	10.24
International Seed Testing Association	6,041	3.08
International Sugar Organization	[21]107,231	11.35
International Tropical Timber	[22]53,000	4.75
International Union for the Protection of New Varieties of Plants (UPOV)	[23]71,000	12.20
International Whaling Commission	31,242	4.24
International Wheat Council	[24]144,769	16.00
Interparliamentary Union	456,674	12.58
North Atlantic Ice Patrol	169,950	9.78
North Atlantic Salmon Conservation Organization	15,573	3.35
Permanent International Association of Navigation Congresses	9,933	13.29
World Tourism Organization	284,411	4.50
Other International Organizations	16,826,131	13.00
Special Voluntary Programs:		
Colombo Plan Drug Advisory Program	100,000	78.74
Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research	42,000,000	19.85
Fund for the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (World Heritage Fund)	215,860	8.18

Source: U.S. Department of State. 37th Annual Report. United States Contributions to International Organizations. Report to the Congress for FY 1988. Pp. xi-xv.

continued

U.S. CONTRIBUTIONS continued

	U.S. Amount	*Percent*
Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES)	170,000	26.97
Intergovernmental Committee for Migration	6,244,682	29.50
International Atomic Energy Agency Technical Assistance Fund	[25] 21,558,394	[26] 27.25
International Fund for Agricultural Development (Specialized Agency)	30,000,000	17.45
OAS Special Cultural Fund	300,000	40.75
OAS Special Development Assistance Fund	4,800,000	57.78
OAS Special Multilateral Fund (Education and Science)	5,400,000	65.10
OAS Special Projects Fund (Mar del Plata)	1,500,000	64.04
PAHO Special Health Promotion Funds	5,000,000	20.00
United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat)	400,000	10.35
United Nations Children's Fund	[27] 53,900,000	18.36
United Nations Development Program	[28] 108,000,000	11.65
United Nations Educational and Training Program for Southern Africa	784,000	16.35
United Nations Environment Program	7,840,000	35.96
United Nations Industrial Development	150,000	50.00
U.N. Capital Development Fund	980,000	2.72
U.N. Development Fund for Women	215,000	3.93
U.N./FAO World Food Program	[29] 234,639,448	20.16
U.N. Fund for Drug Abuse Control	5,520,000	6.11
U.N. High Commissioner for Refugees Program:		
Regular Programs (5)	84,663,943	27.73
Special Programs (7)	26,458,205	15.90
United Nations Relief and Works Agency:		
Regular Program	61,300,000	31.99
Special Programs and Emergency Programs	[30] 2,000,000	2.92
United Nations Trust Fund for South Africa	245,000	6.11
United Nations Volunteers	100,000	7.34
West African Rice Development Association (WARDA)	700,000	10.14
WHO Special Programs	15,000,000	18.75
WMO Voluntary Cooperation Program	[31] 1,960,000	[26] 28.41
Special Voluntary Programs	722,144,532	18.27
Total U.S. Contributions	$1,271,331,275	21.37

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[1] The amounts reported are actual U.S. contributions—including adjustments, i.e., credits, Tax Equalization, Working Capital Fund, deferrals, mandatory reductions, and statutory limitations. Credits due the United States are deducted. Due to fluctuation of the U.S. dollar, for those organizations that present their budgets and bill the United States in foreign currency, the United States percentage rate is calculated on the foreign currency amount rather than the actual U.S. dollar payment. This table does not include:

- Loans (or repayment thereof) such as the loan to the United Nations for the construction of its headquarters, or the purchase of U.N. bonds.
- Commodities unless a contribution was pledged in kind.
- Contracts and/or research grants by U.S. Government Agencies for services or research performed by an international organization.

[2] The total U.S. assessment was $212,875,525. The United States received a credit of $3,950,263, an offset against its loan to the U.N. Additional adjustments were: less $1,000,000 required by Section 144 of P.L. 99–93; less an estimated $900,000—U.S. share of the Law of the Sea Preparatory Commission; less $13,838,000 for the Tax Equalization Fund adjustment; and less a shortfall in appropriated funds of $49,187,262.

[3] The total U.S. assessment was $57,275,000. The United States received a Tax Equalization Fund credit of $7,200,000 and owed $14,343 for a Tax Equalization Fund adjustment. The U.S. contribution was reduced $25,089,343 due to an appropriation shortfall.

[4] The total U.S. assessment was $36,636,149. The United States received a credit of $2,819,779 due to a prior year surplus.

[5] The total U.S. assessment was $7,207,500. The United States received a credit of $281,856 due to a prior year surplus.

[6] The total U.S. assessment was $31,642,500. In addition, the United States owed $74,033 for tax equalization reimbursement. The U.S. contribution was reduced $5,006,900 due to an appropriation shortfall.

[7] The total U.S. assessment was $14,088,351. In addition, the United States owed $750,000 to the Working Capital Fund. The U.S. contribution was reduced $2,341,981 due to an appropriation shortfall.

[8] The total U.S. assessment was $67,923,350. This amount was reduced due to a Tax Equalization Fund credit and adjustment.

[9] Amount includes $593 for the Working Capital Fund and $555,024 for a supplemental assessment.

[10] United States percentage share of cost estimates. The U.S. percentage of pledges made as of December 1988 amounted to 47.66%

[11] The total U.S. assessment was $50,476,092. The U.S. contribution was reduced $21,076,092 due to an appropriation shortfall.

[12] The total U.S. assessment $40,076,700. The United States owed $5 million for tax equalization reimbursement and $10,357,000 for the calendar year 1987 deferral. The U.S. contribution was reduced $11,269,000 representing the calendar year 1988 deferral and $6,046,320 due to an appropriation shortfall.

[13] The total U.S. assessment was $13,137,247. The United States owed $120,000 for tax equalization reimbursement and $3,156,000 for the calendar year 1987 deferral. The U.S. contribution was reduced $3,314,000 representing the calendar year 1988 deferral and $2,068,227 due to an appropriation shortfall.

[14] The total U.S. assessment was $41,066,140. A Tax Equalization Fund credit of 2,903,940 reduced that amount to $38,162,200. The United States owed $8,712,000 for the calendar year 1987 deferral and $1,327,000 for a Tax Equalization Fund adjustment. The U.S. contribution was reduced $9,540,000 representing the calendar year 1988 deferral and $6,103,820 due to an appropriation shortfall.

[15] Amount includes $222,439 for MBFR.

[16] The total U.S. assessment was $2,262,907. The United States had a credit from prior year adjustments amounting to $1,371. The U.S. contribution was reduced $348,286 due to an appropriation shortfall.

[17] Amount includes $51,535 for tax equalization reimbursement.

[18] This amount covers a prior year interest penalty.

[19] Of this amount $55,262 paid the remainder of the 1987/88 assessment.

[20] The total U.S. assessment was approximately $29,519. The U.S. contribution was reduced $16,519 due to an appropriation shortfall.

[21] The total U.S. assessment was $163,119. The U.S. contribution was reduced $55,888 due to an appropriation shortfall.

[22] The total U.S. assessment was $103,455. The U.S. contribution was reduced $50,455 due to an appropriation shortfall.

[23] The total U.S. assessment was $157,083. The U.S. contribution was reduced $86,083 due to an appropriation shortfall.

[24] The total U.S. assessment was approximately $276,157. The U.S. contribution was reduced due to an appropriation shortfall.

[25] Amount includes $4,480,000 in-kind contributions, $7,838,000 for the Safeguards program and other non-proliferation activities, $200,000 for the Siebersdorf Laboratory and $126,000 to support installation of automated equipment in the IAEA Department of Technical Assistance and Cooperation.

[26] Percentage relates to cash contributions only.

[27] The U.S. pledge was $54,400,000. However, due to legal limitations only $53,900,000 was contributed.

[28] The U.S. pledge was $110,000,000. However, due to legal limitations only $108,000,000 was contributed.

[29] Amount includes $56.8 million contribution to the International Emergency Food Reserve.

[30] This contribution was for needs of refugees in the West Bank and Gaza Strip.

[31] Amount includes cash, commodities, and services.

Source: U.S. Department of State. 37th Annual Report. United States Contributions to International Organizations. Report to the Congress for FY 1988. Pp. xi-xv.

River Basins of the United States: THE WABASH

The Wabash is the sixth in this series reprinted by World Eagle. River Basins treated earlier:
The Columbia, February 1989, pp. 20-22
The Hudson, April 1989, pp. 14-16
The Suwannee, June 1989, pp.26-28
The Colorado, October 1989, pp.20-22
The Potomac, December 1989, pp.26-28.

U.S. Department of the Interior/Geological Survey.
One of a series.

Early Exploration and Settlement

The Wabash was discovered by French explorers, fur traders, and missionaries during the last half of the 17th century. They called the river "Ouabache," their spelling of the Indian word for white. Many Indian tribes once inhabited the basin. By the end of the 17th century, the Wabash and the Maumee Rivers had become a main thoroughfare for French explorers and fur traders. About 1719, the French established an outpost near the present city of Lafayette, Ind., and in 1730 they built an outpost at Vincennes, Ind.

Headwaters

The Wabash River rises south of Grand Lake about 12 miles east of the Indiana-Ohio State line, in Darke County, Ohio.

Mouth

The Wabash flows into the Ohio River at the southern end of the Indiana-Illinois State line. The approximate latitude at the mouth is 37°41′ N. and the approximate longitude is 88°01′ W.

Major Tributaries

Salamonie, Mississinewa, Eel, Tippecanoe, Vermilion, Embarras, White, Patoka, and Little Wabash Rivers are major tributaries of the Wabash.

Course

From its source, about 1,065 feet above mean sea level, the river flows about 70 miles northwest to Huntington, Ind. Then it flows 120 miles in a westerly to southwesterly course to a point near Covington, Ind. From Covington it flows south to the Ohio River forming approximately the lower third of the Indiana-Illinois State line. In its upper reaches, the river flows through flat to gently rolling land, but the southward land becomes hillier and the ravines are deeper.

Length

The Wabash River is approximately 475 miles long from its headwaters to its mouth at the Indiana-Illinois State line. It ranks 49th among 135 U.S. rivers that are more than 100 miles long.

Width

The river widens from 200 feet at Huntington to 400 feet at Covington, and it is 1,200 feet at its mouth.

Depth

The river is about 30 feet deep in the lower 50 miles, but it is usually less than 5 feet deep above Huntington, Ind.

Rate of Flow

At Covington, Ind., the river's rate of flow is 3 million gallons per minute (gpm); at Mount Carmel, Ill., the rate of flow is 12 million gpm. The Wabash ranks 15th in average discharge among the rivers of the United States.

Highest and Lowest Flow

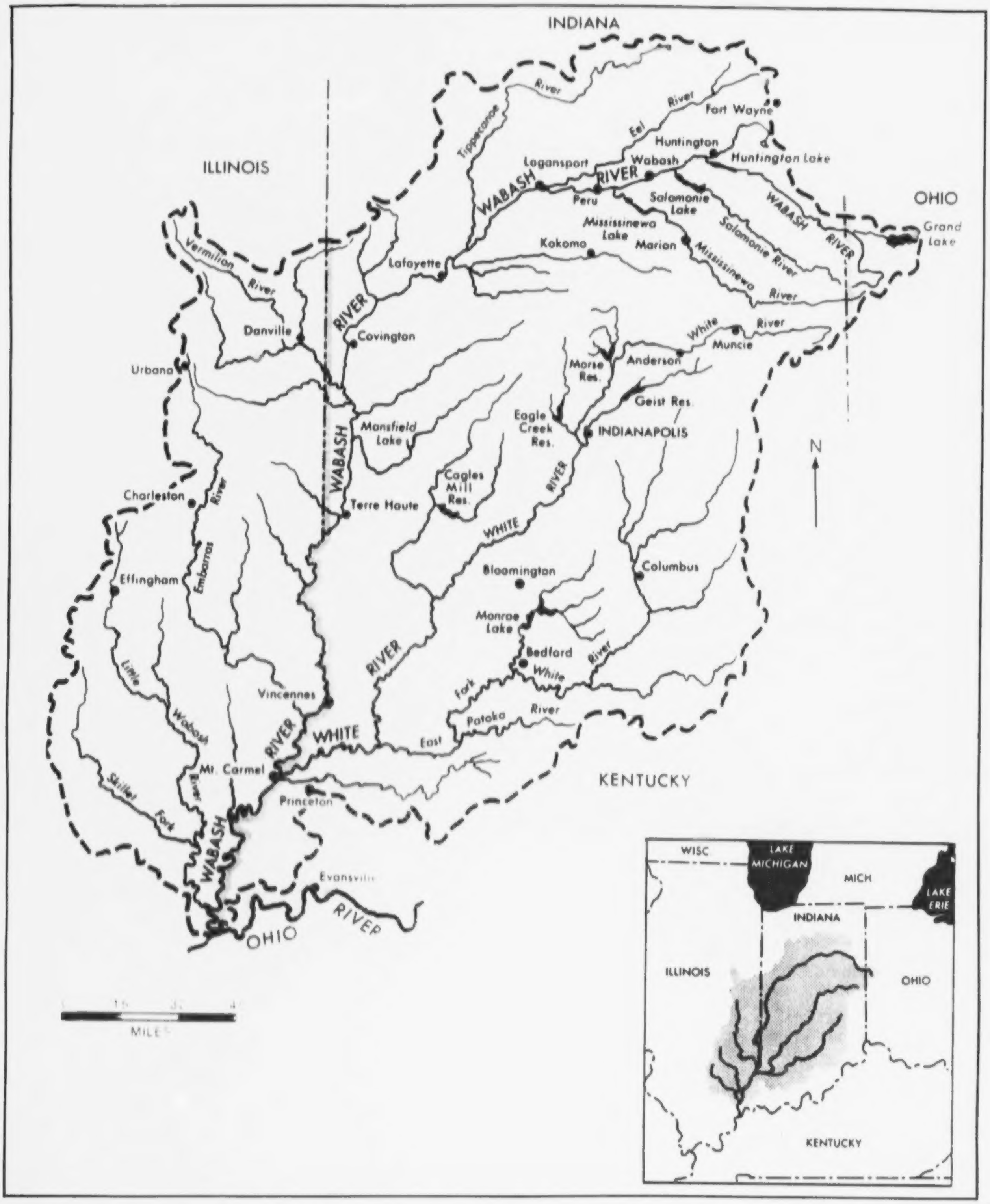
The highest recorded flow, 192,086,400 gpm, occurred at Mount Carmel, Ill., in March 1913; the lowest flow, 740,520 gpm, occurred at Mount Carmel in September 1941.

Dams and Reservoirs

Huntington, Salamonie, Mississinewa, Mansfield, Cagles Mill, Morse, Geist, Eagle Creek, and Monroe Reservoirs in Indiana; and Grand Lake in Ohio.

continued

THE WABASH RIVER BASIN continued


INDIANA
ILLINOIS
OHIO
KENTUCKY
Tippecanoe River
Eel River
Fort Wayne
Huntington
Huntington Lake
Logansport
Wabash
Peru
WABASH RIVER
Salamonie Lake
Salamonie River
Mississinewa Lake
Marion
Mississinewa River
Kokomo
Grand Lake
Vermilion River
Lafayette
Danville
Covington
Urbana
White River
Muncie
Anderson
Morse Res.
Geist Res.
Eagle Creek Res.
INDIANAPOLIS
Mansfield Lake
Cagles Mill Res.
Terre Haute
Charleston
Embarras River
Effingham
Bloomington
Columbus
Monroe Lake
Bedford
East Fork White River
Patoka River
Little Wabash River
Skillet Fork
Vincennes
Mt. Carmel
Princeton
Evansville
OHIO RIVER
N
MILES
WISC
LAKE MICHIGAN
MICH
LAKE ERIE

continued

THE WABASH RIVER BASIN continued

Geologic Setting

The Wabash River Basin lies in two physiographic provinces: Central Lowland and the Interior Low Plateaus. Most of the basin is in the Till Plains section of the Central Lowland. The entire basin has been nearly covered three times by continental glaciers. Glacial drift, in places up to 500 feet thick, now covers most of the basin. Underlying bedrock consists of gently dipping beds of limestone, shale, and sandstone. The bedrock surface was eroded in preglacial times and has numerous ridges and crevices.

Drainage Area

The basin area is 32,910 square miles; 285 are in Ohio, 23,921 are in Indiana (nearly two-thirds of the State), and 8,704 are in Illinois.

Average Rainfall

An average of 40 inches of rain falls annually over the entire basin, ranging from 36 inches in the northern part to 44 inches in the southern part.

Quality

From its headwaters to its mouth, the water is fresh. Chemically it is of calcium-magnesium-bicarbonate type, hard to very hard, and moderate 250 parts per million (ppm), to very high, 1,400 ppm in dissolved solids. Contaminants include industrial waste (including acid mine drainage and oil-field brines), municipal waste, and sediment. Ground water, generally available in the basin, is very hard and high in dissolved solids and iron.

Major Cities

Champaign-Urbana and Danville, Ill.; Bloomington, Columbus, Indianapolis, Lafayette, Muncie, Terre Haute, and Vincennes, Ind., are major cities of the Wabash River Basin.

Municipal and Industrial Water Use

About 2½ million people use 500 million gallons of surface and ground water each day. About 1 million people on farms and in small towns use 170 million gallons each day, mostly ground water.

Commercial Water Use

In addition to flood control, the river and its system of dams and reservoirs provide facilities for various recreational activities. Hydroelectric power has not been developed because of the unfavorable topography.

Agriculture

Agricultural products which come from the basin are: corn (about 35 percent of farm income), soybeans, wheat, hay, vegetables, fruit, dairy products, livestock, and forest products.

Industry

Industry in the basin includes: machinery, chemicals, fabricated metal products, and automotive and electrical equipment and supplies.

Minerals

Minerals found in the basin are: petroleum, coal, natural gas, sand and gravel, clay, limestone, and gypsum.

Water Data

The Hydrologic Data Network, maintained by the U.S. Geological Survey in cooperation with the individual States, is the chief source of basic data on water in this country. In cooperation with other agencies, the U.S. Geological Survey maintains 16,500 gaging stations that measure high and low flow of rivers, lakes, and streams; 27,500 observation wells that collect data on levels and pumpage of ground water; and 8,200 stations that measure water quality. ◆

PROFILES

U.S. Resident Population Totaled 249.6 Million as 1990 Began, Census Bureau Said

An estimated 249.6 million people, 23.1 million more than were counted in the April 1980 census, were living in the United States as 1990 began.

Demographers at the Commerce Department's Census Bureau said the New Year's Day projection of 249,612,627 residents represents a 10.2 percent increase over the 1980 census count of 226,545,805.

The Jan. 1, 1990 total was 2.5 million higher than the 1989 New Year's Day figure. The population was projected to grow by another 2.5 million during 1990. The record for net population growth in a single year is 3.1 million, recorded during the baby boom year of 1956, when the U.S. population was about 168 million.

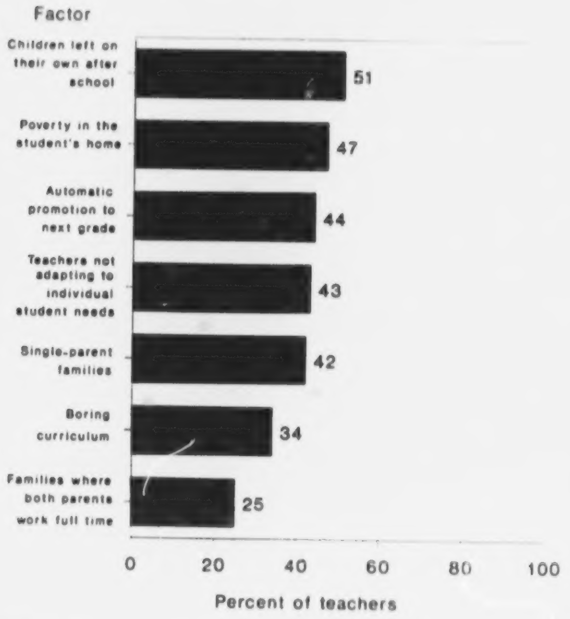
Census based its Jan. 1, 1990 figure on an estimated 3.9 million births, 2.1 million deaths, and net migration of 697,000 during 1989. Births since 1985 have been at their highest annual level since the mid 1960s. Both births and deaths are expected to remain at about the same level in 1990.

The population increased 1.0 percent in each year from 1981 to 1989. This compares with a 1.7 percent average annual growth during the 1950s, the post-war decade in which the nation's population grew most rapidly.

The 1989 estimate did not include members of the armed forces serving in other countries, or other federal employees and their dependents stationed abroad.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB90-01, January 1, 1990.

Percent of Teachers Who Think That Each Factor Is a "Major Cause" of Students' Difficulties in School: 1987



SOURCE: *The Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher 1987: Strengthening Links Between Home and School*

Source: U.S. Department of Education. Office of Educational Research and Improvement. The Condition of Education 1989. Volume 1. Elementary and Secondary Education. P. 67.

Recommended: A free 24-page citizen action guide toward better conservation of the environment titled Your Choices Count © 1990 by National Wildlife Federation, 1400 Sixteenth St., NW, Washington DC 20036-2266.

THE third European Youth Parliament was held in Thessaloniki, Greece, last month when students from schools in the Twelve EC member states took part in three days of committee meetings, modelled along the lines of the European Parliament's committees, followed by a further two days of debate in plenary session.

Before the conference the young people spent a weekend on an Outward Bound course, which proved an ideal opportunity for getting to know each other.

The UK was represented by young people from the James Allen's girl's school in Dulwich after they won an essay competition. They were sponsored by British Gas.

Commenting on her experience, Sophie Honey one of the UK participants writes: "On the Outward Bound weekend we managed to overcome the barriers of language and of expectations coloured by prejudices which I didn't even realise existed in me. Suddenly I was presented with a myriad of opportunities for friendships, which in themselves taught me an amazing amount about my fellow Europeans.

"Our diverse activities, from scaling imaginary electric fences unharmed to building seaworthy rafts out of the most hopeless looking materials, somehow taught us the skills of co-operation and compromise which were to prove so essential in the heated discussions of the coming week."

European Parliament's EP News, December 11-15, 1989.

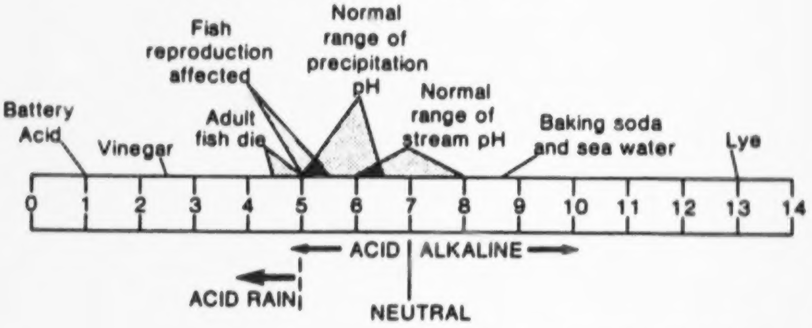
continued ↗

PROFILES continued

Acid Rain

What is acid rain? The term "acid rain" commonly is applied to all forms of atmospheric deposition of acidic substances. It includes rain, snow, fog, dew, acidic particles, and acid-forming gases. Acids form when certain atmospheric gases, primarily carbon dioxide, sulfur dioxide, and nitrogen oxides, come in contact with water in the atmosphere or on the ground and are chemically converted to acidic substances. Oxidants play a major role in several of these acid-forming processes. Carbon dioxide dissolved in rain is converted to a weak acid (carbonic acid); other gases, primarily oxides of sulfur and nitrogen, are converted to strong acids (sulfuric and nitric acids). Strong acids can decrease the pH of precipitation to less than 5.6, the pH of pure water in equilibrium with atmospheric carbon dioxide. Although rain is slightly acidic because of carbon dioxide and natural emissions of sulfur and nitrogen oxides and certain organic acids, human activities can make it much more so. Occasional pH readings of well below 2.4, the acidity of vinegar, have been reported for rain and fog in large cities and highly industrialized areas.

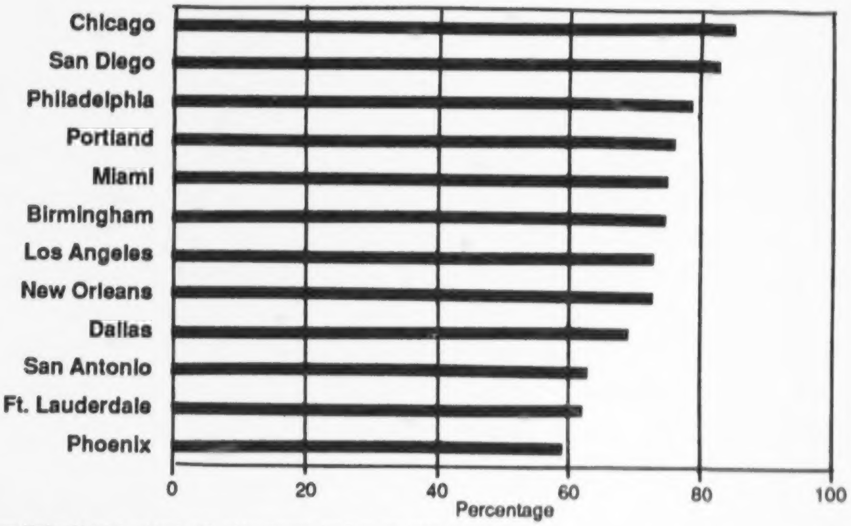
MEASURING ACIDITY -- pH SCALE


Fish reproduction affected
Normal range of precipitation pH
Normal range of stream pH
Battery Acid
Vinegar
Adult fish die
Baking soda and sea water
Lye
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
ACID
ALKALINE
ACID RAIN
NEUTRAL

Source: U.S. Geological Survey. New Publications. List 974. September 1989. P.5.

The cover story of the Summer/Fall 1989 issue (received January 6, 1990 by World Eagle) of Carnegie Quarterly, Carnegie Corporation of New York, is titled Avoiding Nuclear War: Lessons For The Future Of U.S.-Soviet Relations. For a xerox copy of the 12-page quarterly, send $1.00 and a stamped self-adressed envelope to World Eagle.

Percentage of Male Arrestees Testing Positive for Drugs in 12 Cities



Source: National Institute of Justice/Drug Use Forecasting Program, 1989

Source: The White House. National Drug Control Strategy. September 1989. P.18.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY PRESIDENT OUTLINES CHALLENGES FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

The following is reprinted from the Harvard University Gazette, February 2, 1990. P. 1.

The higher education debate during the 1980s has ignored the key issue of how colleges and universities can help America solve its most pressing problems, President Derek Bok said Wednesday at the nation's largest gathering of college presidents.

As the keynote speaker for the 14th annual meeting of the National Association of Independent Colleges and Universities (NAICU) in Washington, D.C., Bok said that recent public criticism of higher education has been confused and contradictory.

"It's not that universities are above criticism, but that the debates of the 1980s have been superficial. We must step back and ask what our society most needs from colleges and universities," Bok said.

The NAICU meeting focused on the "Values in Independent Higher Education" and covered issues and public policy questions facing independent colleges and universities. Bok is a member of the board of directors of NAICU, which currently has 842 members.

"The future of this country probably depends more on education than on any other single factor," said NAICU president Richard Rosser. "To ensure our survival and maintain a decent quality of life, we must make education a top priority. I'd call it a crusade, as a matter of fact."

According to Bok, the country's key challenge during the coming decade will be how to foster the virtues of a free market economy while providing for the welfare, security, and opportunity of all citizens. "Unfortunately, we are not doing particularly well at the present time on either of those dimensions," Bok said.

On the one hand, the American economy has been sluggish, with productivity going up only about 1 percent per year, and many industries are losing markets to foreign competitors, he said.

"At the same time, we are winning a number of races we'd rather not be in," Bok said, mentioning violent crime, teen pregnancy, drug addiction, poverty, illiteracy, and homelessness as areas in which the U.S. rates at or near the top among industrialized nations.

"The question naturally arises, what part do we play in higher education to help the nation deal with those serious and interdependent problems?" Bok said.

He recommended several steps, including:

- Colleges and universities should stress foreign languages and international studies to prepare students for "a more global, competitive, interdependent world";
- Business schools should emphasize manufacturing, management of technology and design, motivation of employees, and doing business abroad;
- Schools of public administration must be strengthened in order to prepare students for the "immensely difficult challenge of being a public official in today's America";
- Schools of education must be given greater support to better prepare teachers and school administrators for dealing with the problems of public education;
- Colleges and universities must build stronger research programs on the problems of poverty, drugs, homelessness, and illiteracy and attack these problems more effectively than President Johnson's War on Poverty during the 1960s.

In concluding, Bok said, "we would want our colleges and universities to make a serious effort to foster civic and ethical values to counter the tendencies toward selfishness that are so prevalent in our society and to try to build stronger feelings of personal responsibility and ethical concern."

Higher education is relatively weak in all these areas and colleges and universities in the 1990s should bring their priorities into alignment with the nation's needs, Bok said.

"As the new century nears, I hope we can spend more time talking about increasing the contribution colleges and universities can make to helping our country where it needs it the most," Bok said.

The NAICU meeting took place Wednesday through Friday, covering such topics as "Conflict of Values on Campus," "America in the 21st Century: How to Educate a Diverse Nation," "The Prospect for Education Funding," and "Understanding Minority Perceptions." The roster of speakers included U.S. Representative from Massachusetts Silvio Conte; U.S. Representative from Pennsylvania William Gray III; U.S. Representative from South Carolina Ernest Hollings; and U.S. Senator from Maryland Barbara Mikulski. ❖

PROPORTION OF BLACKS LIVING IN THE SOUTH GROWS FOR THE FIRST TIME THIS CENTURY

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Release CB90-07, January 10, 1990.

The proportion of Blacks living in the South increased from 1980 to 1988, the first such rise in this century, according to a report on the Black population released [today] by the Commerce Department's Census Bureau.

Fifty-six percent of all Blacks resided in the South in 1988, compared with 52 percent in 1980. The proportion had declined since the beginning of the century when it was 90 percent. Census Bureau experts say the growing concentration is likely to continue well into the next century.

The Northeast is the only region in the 1980s to show a significant decline in its proportion of Blacks, dropping from 19 percent to 17 percent. The proportion for the Midwest (19 percent) and West (8 percent) did not change significantly.

The number of Blacks living in the South totaled 16.4 million in 1988, an increase of 2.8 million since 1980. However, for the rest of the nation, there was no significant change in the number of Blacks at 12.9 million in 1988.

Nationwide the Black population numbered 19.3 million in March 1988, an increase of 14 percent since 1980; the White population grew by 10 percent to 203.9 million. The Black proportion of the total population rose from 11.7 percent in 1980 to 12.2 percent in 1988, the report says.

Here are additional highlights from the report:

REGIONAL

- Four out of five Blacks in the South aged 25 to 34 had completed high school in 1988, a proportion not significantly different from those in the North and West [that is, the rest of the country]; historically, Blacks in the North and West have had higher educational attainment levels. For Whites, however, the proportion in the North and West completing high school was higher than in the South.

- The 1987 median income of Black families living in the South at $17,300 was 10 percent lower than in the North and West where it was $19,120. The median income of White families in the South at $30,730 was 8 percent lower than in the North and West at $33,130.

- The ratio of Black-to-White family median income in the North and West at 58 percent in 1987 was not significantly different from the South at 56 percent.

- Black families in the South in 1987 had a higher poverty rate (31 percent) than those in the North and West (28 percent).

- Black married-couple families in the South comprised 53 percent of all Black families in 1988 compared with 49 percent in the North and West. The proportion of Black female householder families with no husband present was 41 percent in the South, and 45 percent in the North and West.

- Seventy-five percent of Blacks in the North and West lived in central cities compared with 43 percent in the South.

NATIONAL

- The median earnings of Black women who worked year round and full time increased by 7.8 percent ($14,840 to $16,000) from 1979 to 1987. The earnings of comparable Black men at $19,010 in 1987 were not significantly different from their earnings in 1979. As a result, the median earnings of Black women to Black men increased from 0.74 in 1979 to 0.84 in 1987.

- The unemployment rate for Blacks in 1988 was 11.7 percent compared with 4.7 percent for Whites. Unemployment among Black teenagers was 32.4 percent compared with 13.1 percent for White teenagers.

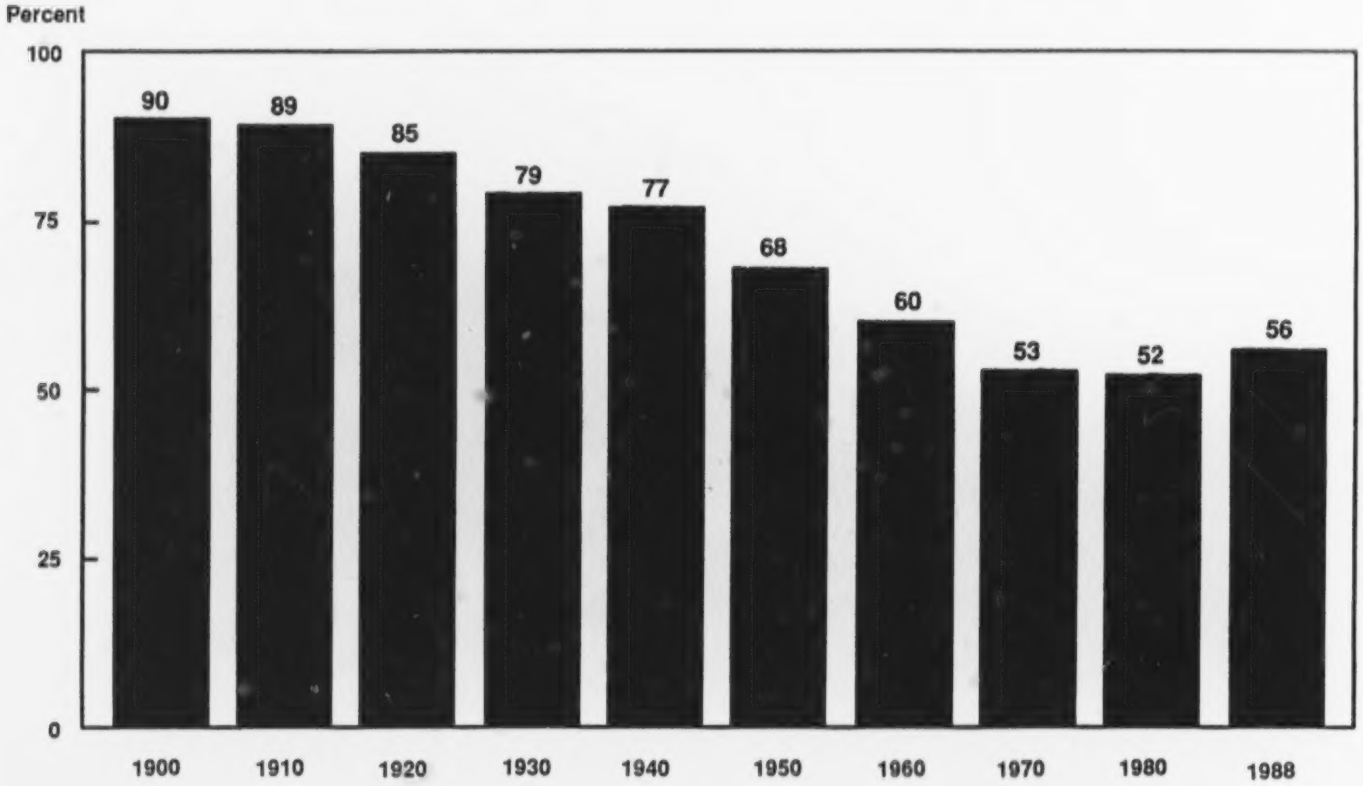
- In 1987, 45 percent of all Black children under age 18 in families and 34 percent of all Black persons aged 65 and over were poor. The comparable proportions for Whites were 15 percent and 10 percent.

- Black females outnumbered Black males by 1.9 million in 1988; there were 100 Black females for every 88 Black males. Among Whites, there were 100 females for every 96 males.

- The median age of Blacks in March 1988 was 27.3 years, up from 24.8 years in 1980. The median was 25.8 years for Black males and 28.6 years for Black females.

continued

PERCENT OF THE BLACK POPULATION LIVING IN THE SOUTH: 1800 TO 1988



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Release CB90-07, January 10, 1990.

Excerpts From

THE STATE OF THE HUMANITIES

which is one of five sections in Humanities in America, A Report to the President, the Congress, and the American People by Lynne V. Cheney, Chairman, National Endowment for the Humanities. Washington DC. 1988.

".... increasing numbers of Americans *are* learning, *are* gaining the insights that the humanities offer.

"And our society is the better for it. The Romans, who gave us the word *humanities*, called them the "good arts," recognizing that poetry, history, and philosophy serve ends beyond knowledge. They enlarge understanding by showing us that we are not the first generation to grapple with moral dilemmas: How is it best to live? What deserves our commitment? What should we disdain? The humanities provide context for the decisions we must make as a people by raising questions of social purpose: What is a just society, and how is it achieved? How do we reconcile the rights of the individual with the needs of the community?

"....The same television set that brings us game shows brings us elegant dramatic productions and documentaries. In the smallest towns, people can watch opera and ballet; they can learn history, literature, and philosophy from television programs that world-famed scholars have helped shape. Through the mails and in neighborhood libraries, Americans can rent videotapes of "Tartuffe" and "The Tempest," of "The Story of English," and of "Heritage: Civilization and the Jews." And after they watch, they frequently read. A PBS series of conversations with scholar Joseph Campbell recently propelled a book of those conversations and two books of Campbell's writings to the bestseller lists.

"....Ten years ago, philosopher Charles Frankel suggested that when we talk about the place of the humanities in American life, we are really asking a series of questions:

> "What images of human possibility will American society put before its members? What standards will it suggest to them as befitting the dignity of the human spirit? What decent balance among human employments will it exhibit? Will it speak to them only of success and celebrity and the quick fix that makes them happy, or will it find a place for grace, elegance, nobility, and a sense of connection with the human adventure?

"In 1988 it is possible to answer that our society has made progress in expanding images of human possibility for its members, in increasing awareness of what human excellence can mean, in developing insight into the past and all it has to tell us of triumph and disappointment, of choices made and not made and their consequences. Much remains to be done, but the task in terms of the general public, has been well begun.

"It is not possible to make such a positive assessment when one looks at our colleges and universities. At the same time that public interest in the humanities has grown, study of these disciplines has declined among formally enrolled students. Between 1966 and 1986, a period in which the number of bachelor's degrees awarded increased by 88 percent, the number of bachelor's degrees awarded in the humanities declined by 33 percent. Foreign language majors dropped by 29 percent; English majors, by 33 percent; philosophy majors, by 35 percent; and history majors, by 43 percent.

"... Formal education should follow a plan of study aimed at comprehensive vision, not just of the present, but of the past. It should convey how the ideas and ideals of our civilization have evolved, thus providing a basis for understanding other cultures. It should provide a framework for lifelong learning about ourselves and the world in which we live.

"... as a 1988 survey funded by the National Endowment for the Humanities shows, it is possible to graduate now, as it was five years ago, from almost 80 percent of the nation's four-year colleges and universities without taking a course in the history of Western civilization. It is possible to graduate now, as it was five years ago, from *more* than 80 percent of our institutions of higher education without taking a course in American history. In 1988-89, it is possible to earn a bachelor's degree from:

- 37 percent of the nation's colleges and universities without taking *any* course in history;
- 45 percent without taking a course in American or English literature;
- 62 percent without taking a course in philosophy;
- 77 percent without studying a foreign language." ❖

World Eagle
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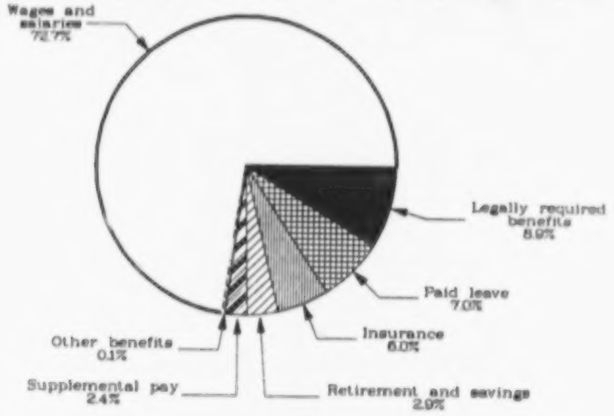
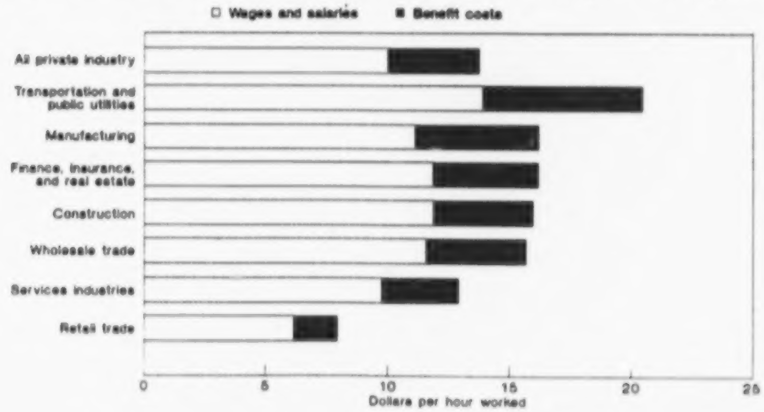
THREE ASPECTS OF EMPLOYER COSTS, PRIVATE INDUSTRY, MARCH 1989

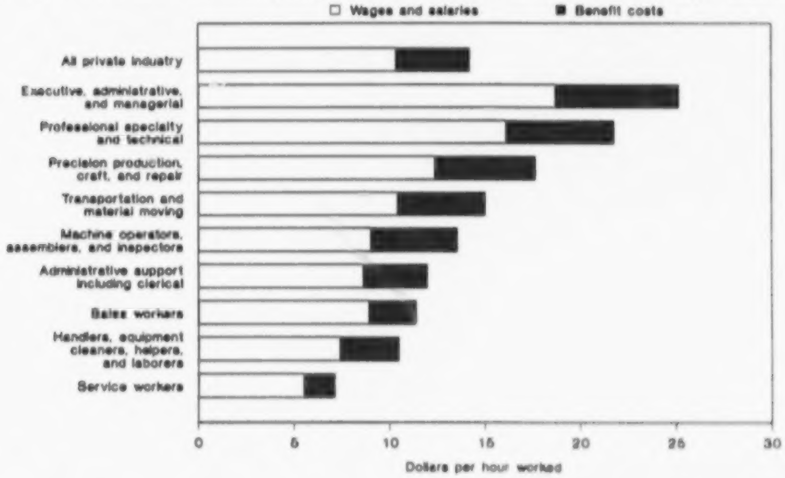
Components of Employer Costs for Employee Compensation



Employer Costs for Employee Compensation by Industry Group



Employer Costs for Employee Compensation by Occupational Group



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Employment Costs Indexes and Levels, 1975-89. Bulletin 2339. October 1989. Pp. 10 & 12.

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Monthly abbreviations are: S, O, N, D, Ja, F, Mr, Ap, My, Je. A reference of S5 means September issue, page 5. PROFILES pages are indexed, and so, also are the individual items in them. A PROFILES (P) item on drug use in the November issue, page 18 would be indexed DRUGS: Use (P), N18, OPINION pages (O) are indexed and so are the items in them.

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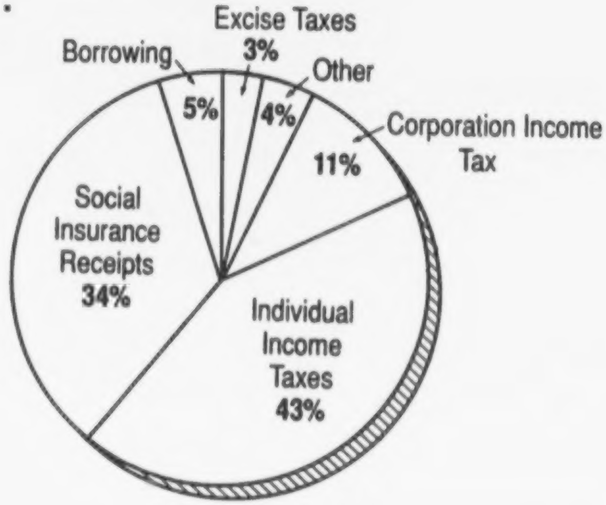
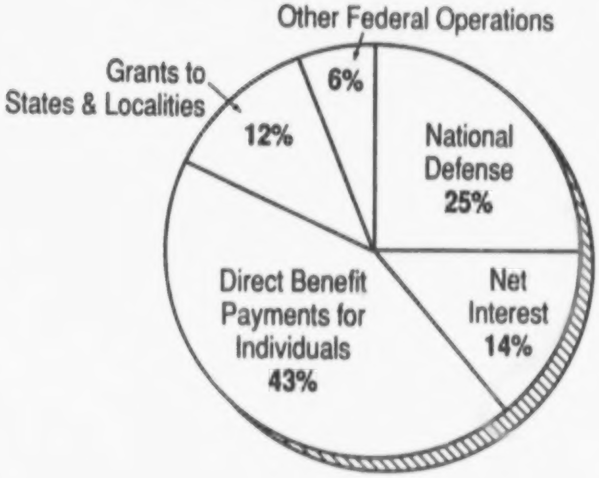
THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT DOLLAR

Fiscal Year 1991 Estimate

Where It Comes From. . .



Where It Goes. . .



RECEIPTS, OUTLAYS, DEFICIT/SURPLUS UNDER THE PRESIDENT'S PROPOSED POLICY

(In billions of dollars)

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Receipts	990.7	1,073.5	1,170.2	1,246.4	1,327.6	1,408.6	1,486.3
Outlays	1,142.6	1,197.2	1,233.3	1,271.4	1,321.8	1,398.0	1,476.9
Surplus or Deficit (+/−)	−152.0	−123.8	−63.1	−25.1	+5.7	+10.7	+9.4

Source: Budget of the United States Government. Fiscal Year 1991. January 29, 1990. P. 2.

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HOW THE FY 1991 BUDGET IS DIFFERENT

An Opening Page Statement By The Staff Of The House Budget Committee

The fiscal year 1991 budget submitted to Congress by President Bush is dramatically different in form from budgets submitted by President Reagan and other Presidents since the enactment of the Budget Act in 1974. The new format was developed by the Office of Management and Budget without consultation with Congress.

The most obvious change in the format of the budget is that the President has presented a single budget document to Congress instead of the six documents presented by President Reagan in fiscal year 1990. The contents of the six documents have not simply been combined into a single volume, however. Some information, particularly historical tables, included in previous years has not been included in the new budget. The remaining information has been shuffled and presented in a new order and new form arranged by themes. A 47 page guide to the budget was provided with the budget for the purpose of locating functional materials, economic information, and specific analyses and tables.

A more subtle change in the budget is that the descriptions of the President's spending proposals in the new Section One of the budget are not readily linked to the budget amounts presented for each function in Section Two. In the past, Section 5 of the budget presented a concise account of the President's proposals in each function along with a summary of the budget amounts for the function. The fiscal year 1991 budget organizes a series of policy statements by thematic categories unrelated to budget functions and does not provide any explanation of the costs or savings from proposed legislation included in tables of budget authority and outlays by function. This makes it difficult to determine quickly the specific budget effects of the policies proposed in the budget.

Since the Budget Act requires the budget resolution to specify functional totals for spending and credit authority, this Summary and Analysis of the President's Budget has been arranged, as usual, by functional category. ◆

Source: Committee On The Budget, U.S. House of Representatives, President Bush's Fiscal Year 1991 Budget. [A Summary and Analysis Prepared by the Staff of the House Budget Committee.] February 2, 1990. P. 1.

THE BUDGET MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT

To the Congress of the United States:

I have the honor to present the *Budget of the United States Government for Fiscal Year 1991.*

The American economy is now in its eighth consecutive year of expansion and growth. It is essential that the growth of the economy continue and increase in the future. The budget is designed to achieve that goal.

The budget has five broad themes:

- ***Investing in Our Future***—With an eye toward future growth, and expansion of the human frontier, the budget's chief emphasis is on investment in the future. It proposes: a capital gains incentive for long-term private investment and new incentives for family savings; record-high amounts for research and development, space, education, and Head Start; a major investment in civil aviation; and a large increase in spending to attack the scourge of drugs. At the same time, the budget maintains a strong national defense while reflecting the dramatic changes in the world political situation that are taking place; and it fulfills responsibilities to protect the environment, and preserve America's cultural heritage.
- ***Advancing States as Laboratories***—The budget recognizes the emergence of new ideas and initiatives originating at the State and local level. The Federal Government will foster such innovation and experimentation in numerous fields, from transportation to health, through waivers of certain rules and regulations, and through demonstration grants.
- ***Reforming Mandatory Programs***—Entitlement and other mandatory spending now constitutes nearly half the budget, not counting an additional 14 percent for interest. The budget provides for full payment of social security benefits and funds growth in health, low income and other mandatory programs. However, it proposes reforms where warranted to slow the growth in some of these programs and thus leave more room in the budget for priority initiatives.
- ***Acknowledging Inherited Claims***—The budget faces up to such inherited claims as the cleanup of decades old environmental damage at nuclear weapons facilities. It analyzes potential claims from unfunded annuities and Federal insurance programs. It assesses the growing volume of defaults in Federal credit programs and proposes essential credit reforms.
- ***Managing for Integrity and Efficiency***—The budget contains suggestions for reforms in the way Congress deals with the budget. It provides more resources and suggests improved methods for managing the vast Federal enterprise better. It identifies low-return domestic discretionary programs where a smaller investment of budgetary resources is warranted.

The budget meets the deficit target of $64 billion for 1991 established by the Gramm-Rudman-Hollings law, without raising taxes. It would balance the budget by 1993 as required by that law, begin reducing debt, and protect the integrity of Social Security.

Each of the themes outlined above is discussed in more detail in Section One of the budget, the Overview. The customary tabular and appendix material is contained in Section Two.

I look forward to working with the Congress in the weeks and months ahead to produce a budget that meets the Gramm-Rudman-Hollings target, advances the Nation's essential interests, and keeps the economy on the path of continued growth.

GEORGE BUSH

JANUARY 29, 1990

Source: Budget of the United States Government, Fiscal Year 1991, January 29, 1990. P. 3.

MAJOR "SOCIAL" PROGRAMS

Despite the fact that this months's FOCUS section is titled Social Programs In The Federal Budget, there is no easily agreed upon definition that would yield such a grouping.

Listed below, then, from the Budget's section on Federal Programs by Function, pages A-145--A-155, are some of the major programs most people would list as "social," and a listing of all other major functions of programs not considered here as "social."

Major "Social" Programs

Program		Outlays	% of Budget Outlays
500	Education, Training, Employment, and Social Services	$41,005,000,000	3.3%
550	Health	63,698,000,000	5.2%
570	Medicine	98,615,000,000	8.0%
600	Income Security	153,738,000,000	12.5%
650	Social Security	264,811,000,000	21.5%
700	Veterans Benefits and Services	30,308,000,000	2.5%
		$652,175,000,000	53.0%

All Others 47%

Program		Outlays	% of Budget Outlays
050	National Defense	$303,251,000,000	24.6%
150	International Affairs	18,172,000,000	1.5
250	General Science, Space amd Technology	16,609,000,000	1.3
270	Energy	3,029,000,000	0.2
300	Natural Resources and Environment	18,168,000,000	1.5
350	Agriculture	14,938,000,000	1.2
370	Commerce and Housing Credit	17,184,000,000	1.4
400	Transportation	29,758,000,000	2.4
450	Community and Regional Development	7,825,000,000	0.6
750	Administration of Justice	12,608,000,000	1.0
800	General Government	11,282,000,000	0.9
900	Net Interest	172,979,000,000	14.0
920	Allowances	-1,070,000,000	-3.6
950	Undistributed Offsetting Receipts	-43,578,000,000	

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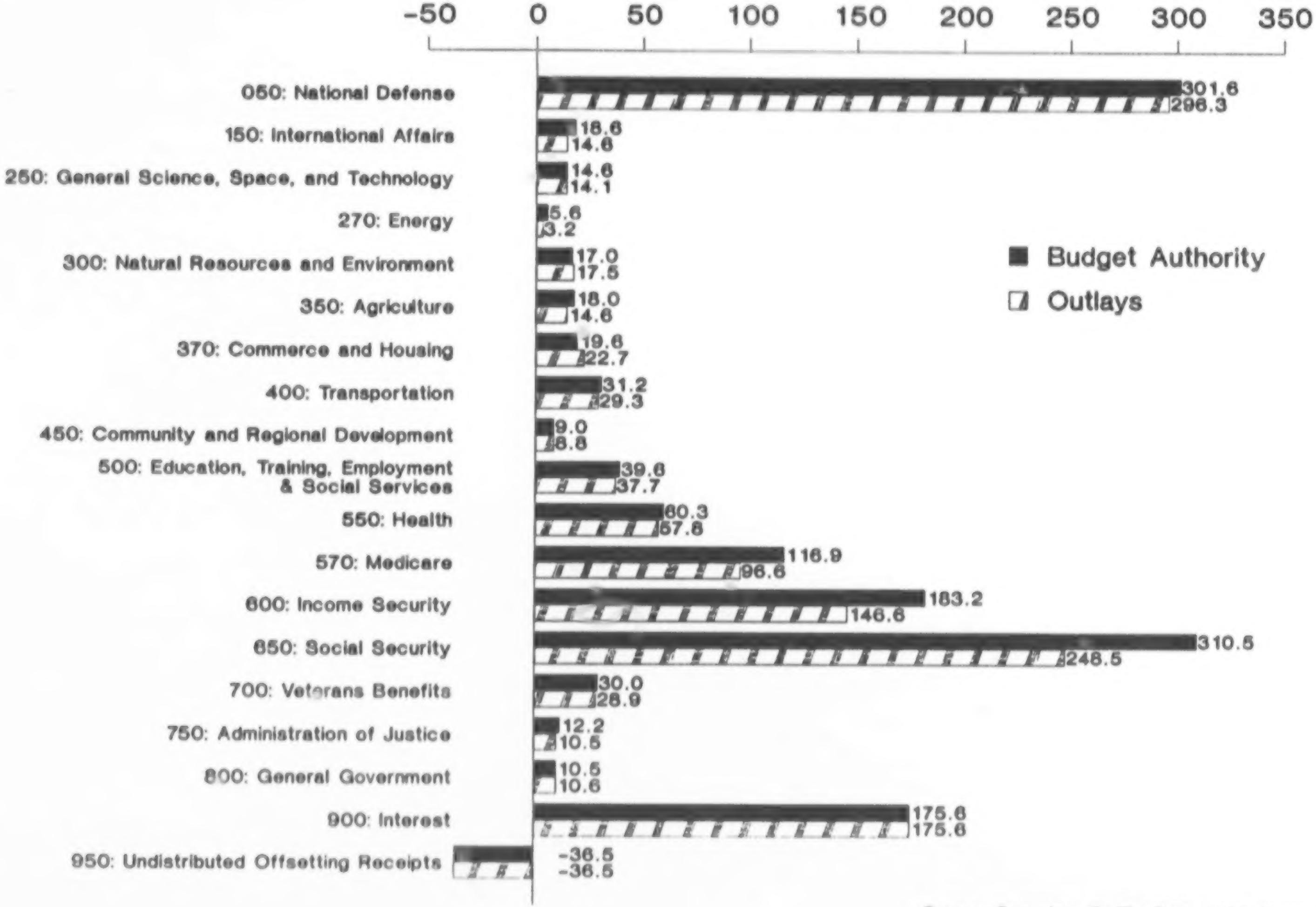
PRESIDENT'S RECOMMENDATION BY FUNCTION FISCAL YEAR 1991 IN BILLIONS OF DOLLARS



Source: Committee On The Budget, U.S. House of Representatives, President Bush's Fiscal Year 1991 Budget. [A Summary and Analysis Prepared by the Staff of the House Budget Committee.] February 2, 1990. P. 148.

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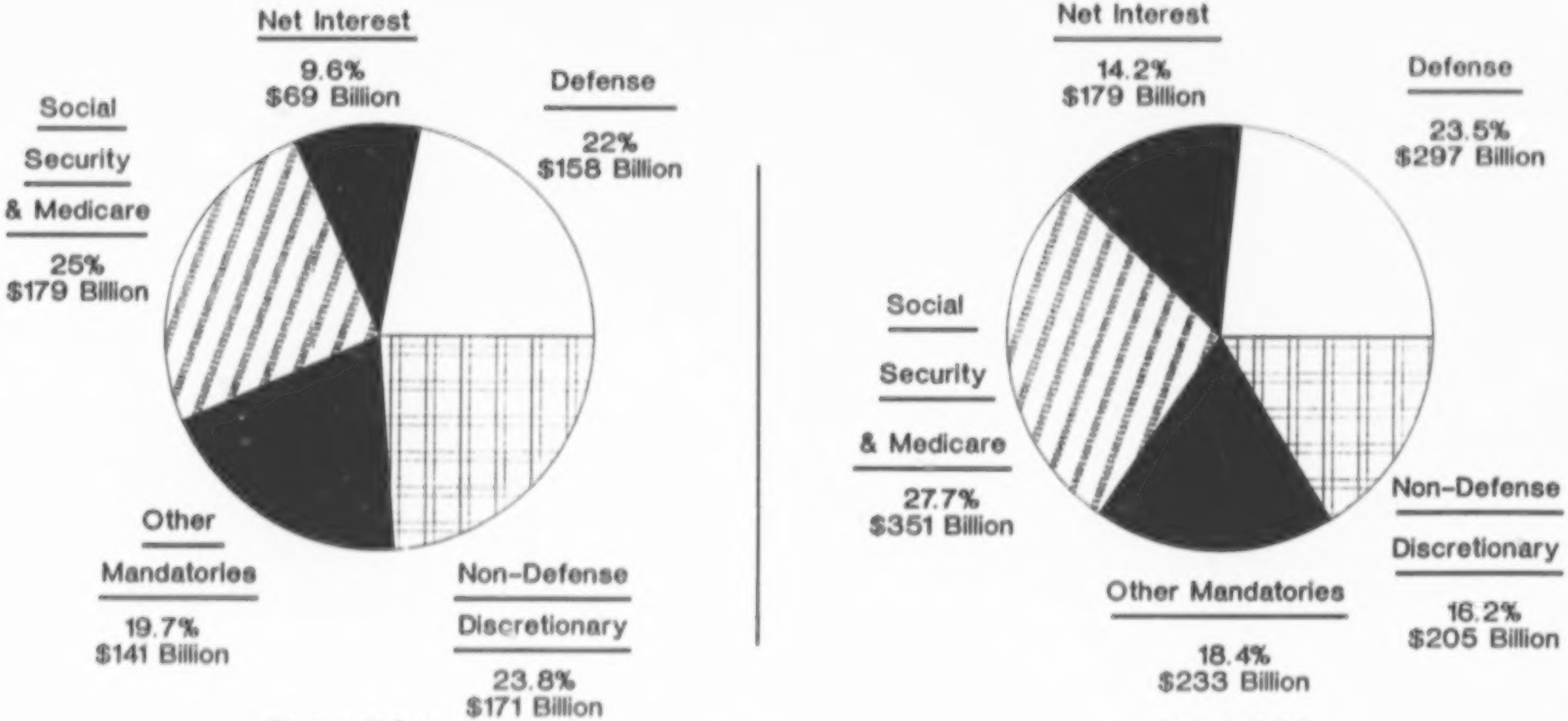
CHANGING BUDGET PRIORITIES IN THE 1980s

MAJOR SPENDING CATEGORIES AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL SPENDING*



FY 1981

FY 1990

* Gross outlays, excluding offsetting receipts; Charts reflect CBO revised categorization.

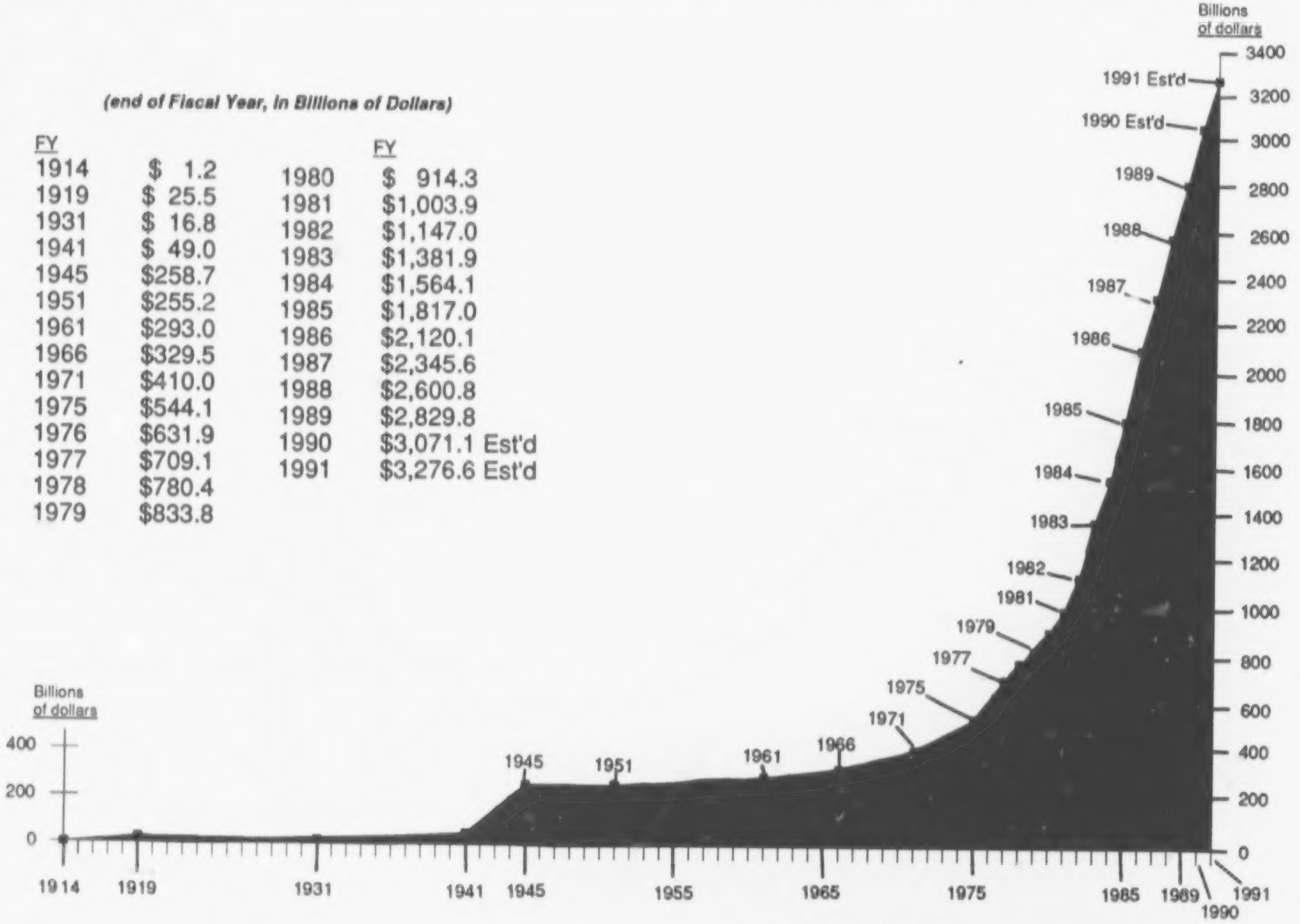
House of Representatives
Committee on the Budget

Source: Committee On The Budget, U.S. House of Representatives, President Bush's Fiscal Year 1991 Budget. [A Summary and Analysis Prepared by the Staff of the House Budget Committee.] February 2, 1990. P. 259.

U.S. FEDERAL DEBT IS MORE THAN $3 TRILLION

(end of Fiscal Year, in Billions of Dollars)

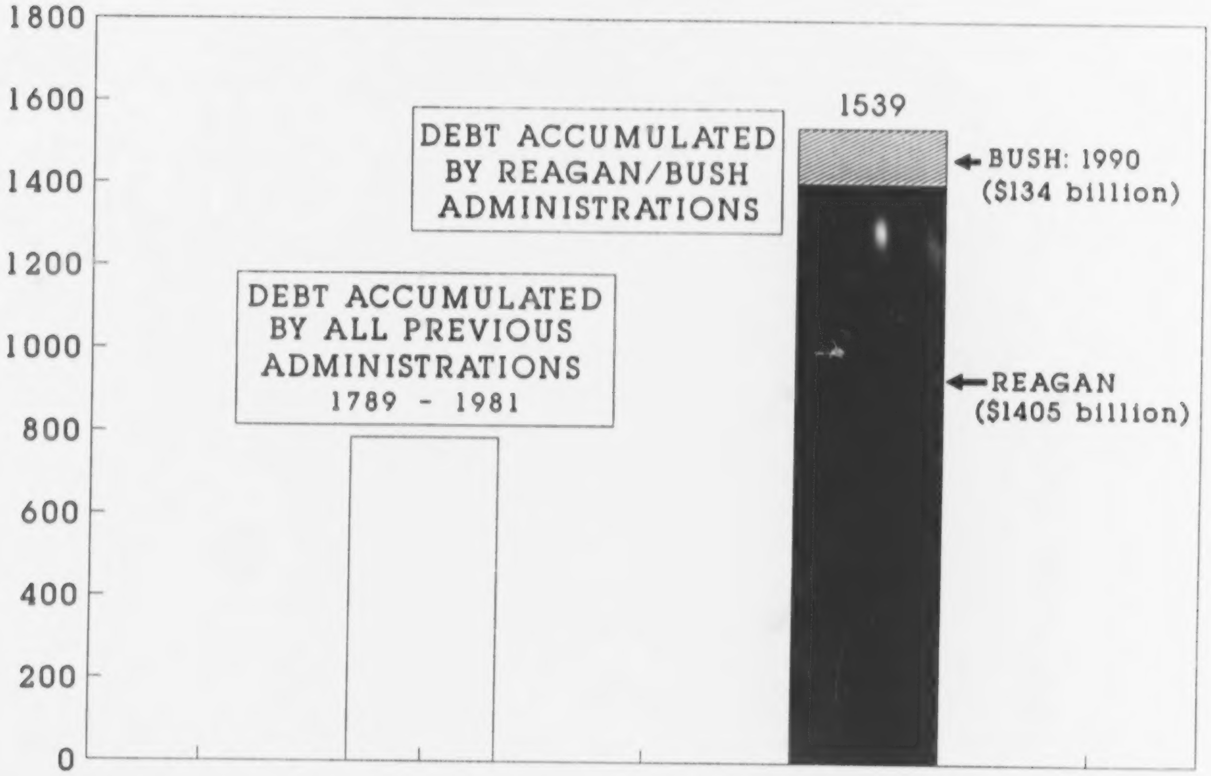
FY		FY	
1914	$ 1.2	1980	$ 914.3
1919	$ 25.5	1981	$1,003.9
1931	$ 16.8	1982	$1,147.0
1941	$ 49.0	1983	$1,381.9
1945	$258.7	1984	$1,564.1
1951	$255.2	1985	$1,817.0
1961	$293.0	1986	$2,120.1
1966	$329.5	1987	$2,345.6
1971	$410.0	1988	$2,600.8
1975	$544.1	1989	$2,829.8
1976	$631.9	1990	$3,071.1 Est'd
1977	$709.1	1991	$3,276.6 Est'd
1978	$780.4		
1979	$833.8		



World Eagle Chart.
Figures for 1984-1988 are from The United States Budget in Brief Fiscal Year 1990, January 9, 1989. Table 1. Figures for 1989 and Estimates for 1990 and 1991 are from Committee on The Budget, U.S. House of Representatives. President Bush's Fiscal Year 1991 Budget. [A Summary and Analysis Prepared by the Staff of the House Budget Committee.] February 2, 1990.

ACCUMULATION OF DEBT HELD BY THE PUBLIC

(Billions of dollars, fiscal years)



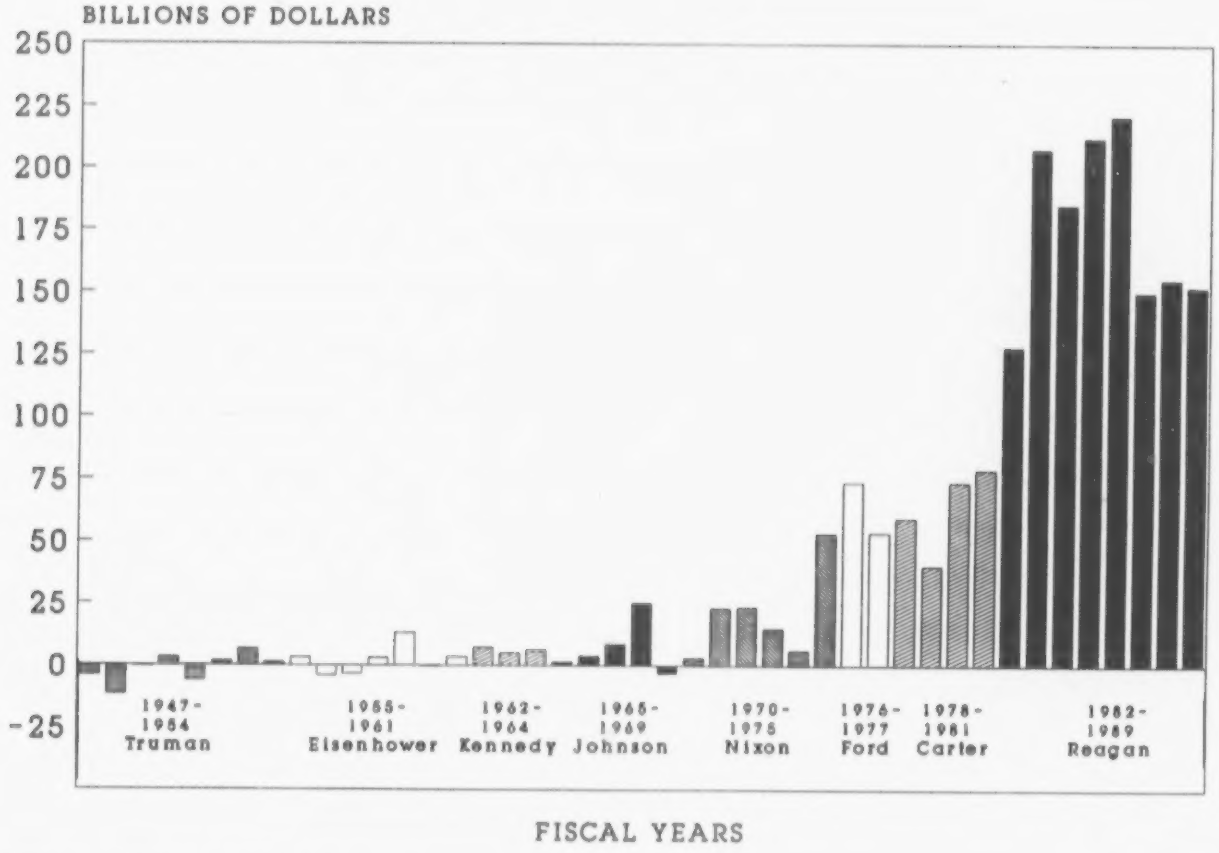
Accumulation of debt held by the public is equivalent to total cumulative deficits.
Bush (1990) debt figure is CBO estimate

370

369

Source: Committee On The Budget, U.S. House of Representatives, President Bush's Fiscal Year 1991 Budget. [A Summary and Analysis Prepared by the Staff of the House Budget Committee.] February 2, 1990. P. 145.

FEDERAL BUDGET DEFICITS: 1947-1989



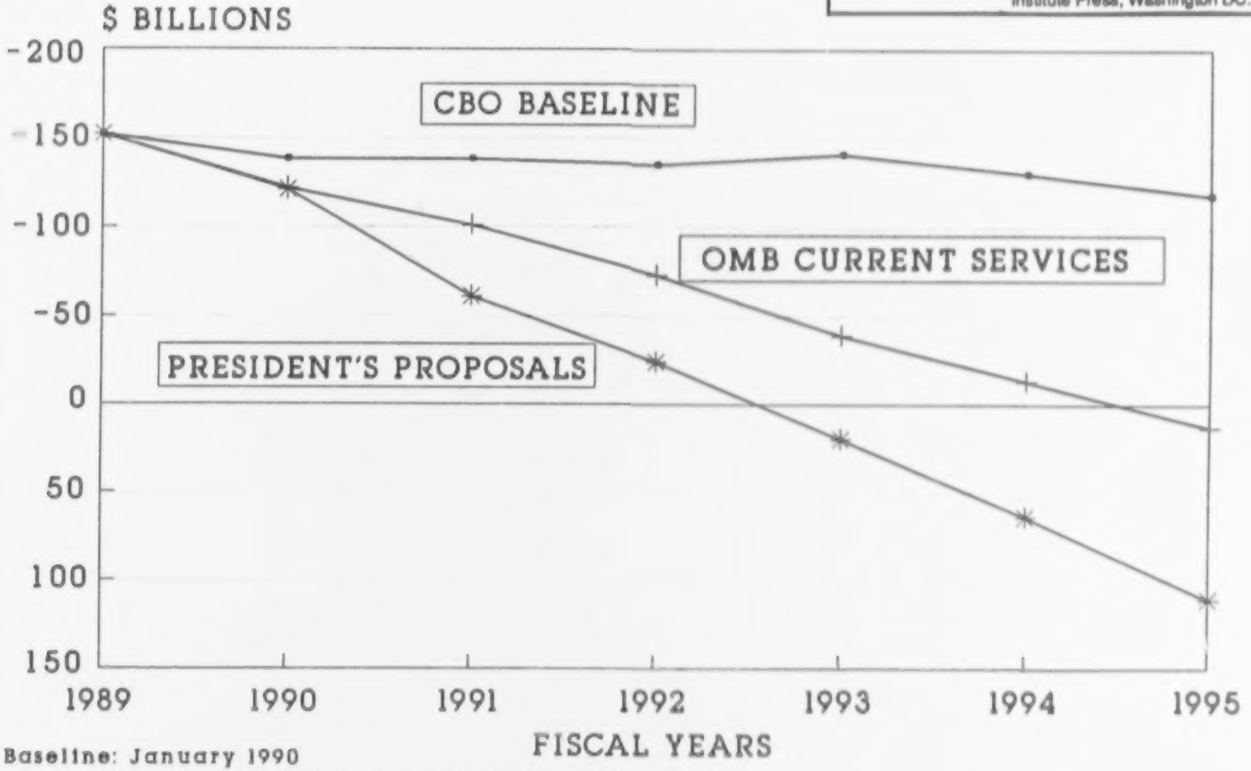
Negative values indicate surpluses

Source: Committee On The Budget, U.S. House of Representatives, President Bush's Fiscal Year 1991 Budget. [A Summary and Analysis Prepared by the Staff of the House Budget Committee.] February 2, 1990. p. 257.

DEFICITS: PRESIDENT'S BUDGET, CONGRESSIONAL BUDGET OFFICE AND OFFICE OF MANAGEMENT AND BUDGET BASELINES

Baseline: A projection of the federal revenues and spending that would occur if current laws and policies were to continue unchanged. This projection is not a forecast of a future federal budget. It is only a benchmark against which proposed changes in taxes or spending programs can be measured. The baseline concept is used interchangeably with current policy and current services.

The Guide To The Federal Budget, Fiscal 1985 Edition, Stanley E. Collender, The Urban Institute Press, Washington DC.

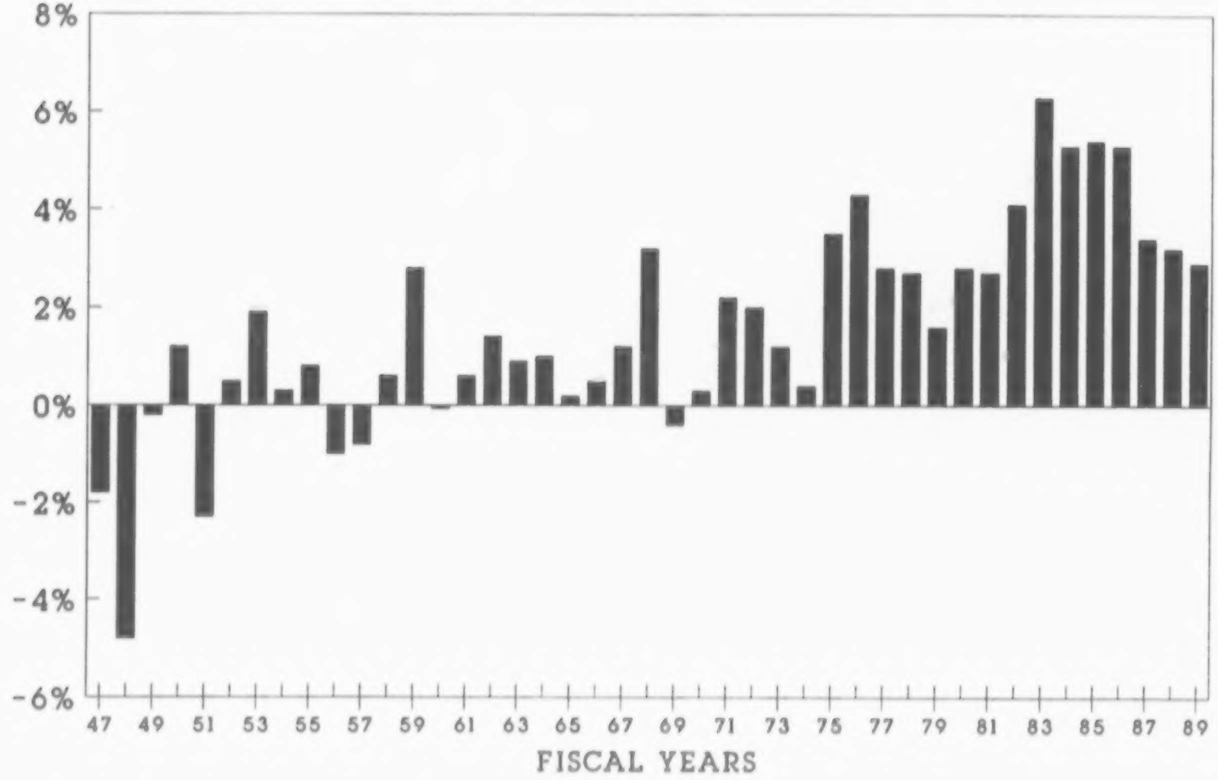


CBO Baseline: January 1990
OMB Current Services: Adjusted for food stamps and census
President's Proposals: Current concept

Source: Committee On The Budget, U.S. House of Representatives, President Bush's Fiscal Year 1991 Budget. [A Summary and Analysis Prepared by the Staff of the House Budget Committee.] February 2, 1990. P. 252.

FEDERAL BUDGET DEFICITS: 1947-1989

-Percent of GNP-



Negative values indicate surpluses

Source: Committee On The Budget, U.S. House of Representatives, President Bush's Fiscal Year 1991 Budget. [A Summary and Analysis Prepared by the Staff of the House Budget Committee.] February 2, 1990. P. 258.

SPENDING BY MAJOR CATEGORY, FY 1962-FY 1995

(IN BILLIONS OF DOLLARS)

	National Defense	Entitlements & Other Mandatory Spending	Nondefense Discretionary Spending	Net Interest	Offsetting Receipts	Total Outlays
1962	52.3	30.7	23.9	6.9	-7.0	106.8
1963	53.4	33.2	25.1	7.7	-8.1	111.3
1964	54.8	34.4	29.0	8.2	-7.8	118.5
1965	50.6	34.7	32.3	8.6	-8.0	118.2
1966	58.1	37.5	38.1	9.4	-8.5	134.5
1967	71.4	45.3	40.8	10.3	-10.3	157.5
1968	81.9	52.3	43.6	11.1	-10.8	178.1
1969	82.5	58.5	41.1	12.7	-11.1	183.6
1970	81.7	66.2	45.0	14.4	-11.6	195.6
1971	78.9	80.6	50.1	14.8	-14.2	210.2
1972	79.2	94.2	56.1	15.5	-14.2	230.7
1973	76.7	110.2	59.6	17.3	-18.1	245.7
1974	79.3	124.4	65.4	21.4	-21.3	269.4
1975	86.5	156.4	84.7	23.2	-18.5	332.3
1976	89.6	182.8	92.4	26.7	-19.7	371.8
1977	97.2	196.5	107.2	29.9	-21.6	409.2
1978	104.5	216.3	125.5	35.4	-23.0	458.7
1979	116.3	234.2	136.3	42.6	-26.1	503.5
1980	134.0	277.2	157.6	52.5	-30.3	590.9
1981	157.5	320.4	170.8	68.7	-39.2	678.2
1982	185.3	356.0	156.6	85.0	-37.2	745.7
1983	209.9	398.8	156.0	89.8	-46.1	808.3
1984	227.4	394.7	163.9	111.1	-45.3	851.8
1985	252.7	437.3	174.9	129.4	-48.0	946.3
1986	273.4	454.8	173.2	136.0	-47.0	990.3
1987	282.0	472.4	165.1	138.6	-54.2	1003.8
1988	290.4	502.7	177.2	151.7	-58.0	1064.0
1989	303.5	543.6	191.0	168.9	-64.2	1142.9
1990*	297.0	584.0	205.0	180.0	-60.0	1205.0
1991*	307.0	624.0	219.0	185.0	-60.0	1275.0
1992*	318.0	664.0	229.0	192.0	-63.0	1339.0
1993*	328.0	718.0	237.0	199.0	-65.0	1418.0
1994*	345.0	758.0	245.0	205.0	-69.0	1484.0
1995*	355.0	809.0	254.0	209.0	-72.0	1555.0

* CBO Preliminary Baseline.

Source: Committee On The Budget, U.S. House of Representatives, President Bush's Fiscal Year 1991 Budget, [A Summary and Analysis Prepared by the Staff of the House Budget Committee.] February 2, 1990. P. 255.

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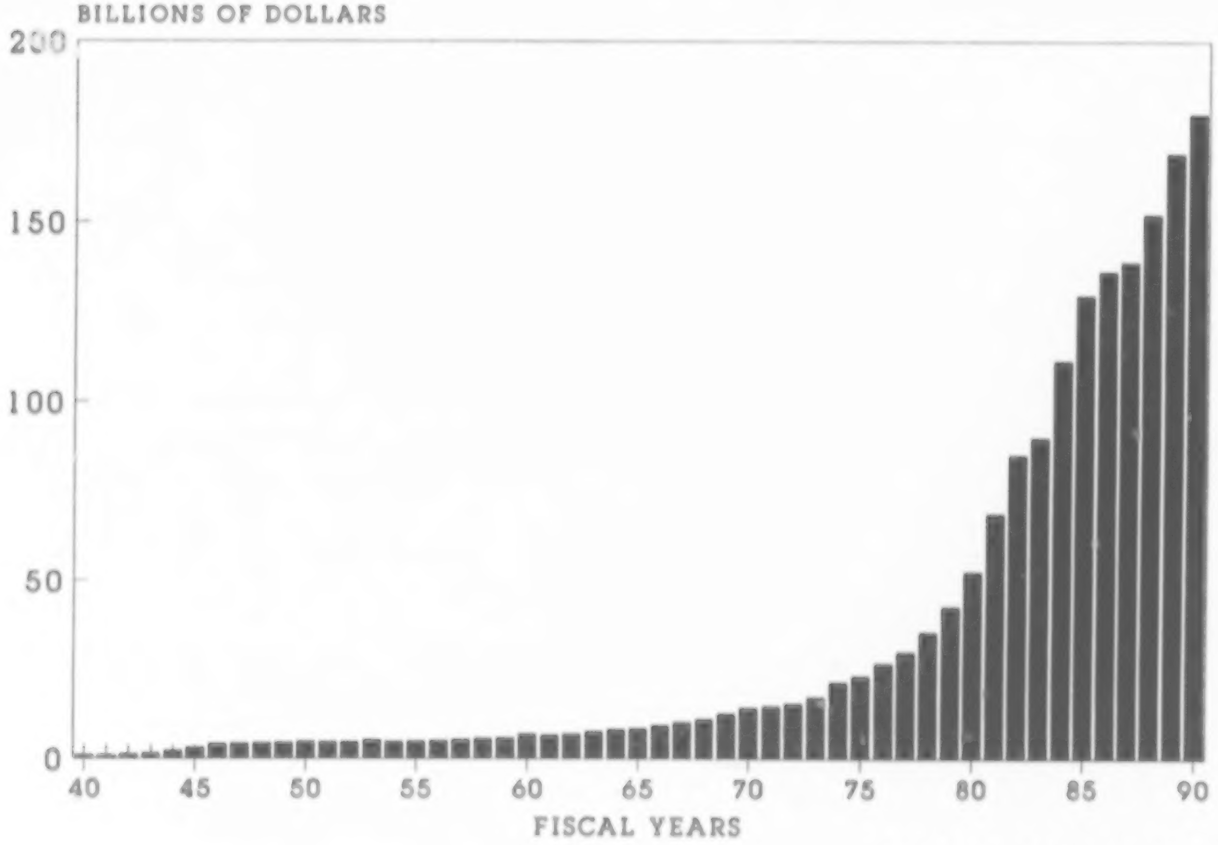
NET INTEREST PAYMENTS, FISCAL YEARS 1940-1990



1990: CBO JANUARY BASELINE

Source: Committee On The Budget, U.S. House of Representatives, President Bush's Fiscal Year 1991 Budget. [A Summary and Analysis Prepared by the Staff of the House Budget Committee.] February 2, 1990. P. 260.

WORLD POPULATION GROWTH RATE TO CONTINUE DECLINE

The world's population growth rate is expected to continue its decline in the 1990s, according to a profile by the Commerce Department's Census Bureau.

Meanwhile the total population will continue to increase. Some 93 million people are being added this year, 93 percent of them in developing countries.

A world population profile by the Commerce Department's Census Bureau estimates a global population of 5.2 billion in 1989. Three-fourths live in developing nations, and that proportion is projected to reach over 80 percent by the year 2020.

Despite the overall declining growth rate, the world population will increase by a billion people during each of the next three decades, the report says. It projects a growth to more than 6 billion by the turn of the century, fully half of the people living in the five largest countries (China, India, Soviet Union, United States, and Indonesia).

Population growth rates in Asia have been declining steadily since 1970, the average for the region now the lowest among developing nations. Japan's declining growth rate could lead to a population decrease early in the 21st century. Population declines also are anticipated in West Germany, Italy, and some other European countries.

The population growth rate in Sub-Saharan Africa will continue to climb, peaking during the mid-1990s and then gradually declining.

Here are the other findings of the report:

. In many developing countries, the rate of married women of reproductive age using contraceptives exceeds 50 percent, while in some countires such as Mali and Uganda the rate is only 5 percent.

. Mortality levels also vary widely. In Afghanistan and The Gambia, more than 170 infants die before their first birthday for each 1,000 born alive, while Japan has the world's lowest infant mortality rate at 5 per 1000. The United States has a rate of 10 infant deaths per 1000 live births each year.

. Thirty-six percent of the population in developing countries is under 15 years of age, compared with 22 percent in developing countries.

. Urban populations in developing countries are growing at twice the rural rate. Nevertheless, rural populations in developing countries are growing faster than urban populations in developed countries.

Copies of World Population Profile: 1989, Series Wp-89, are available prepaid from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington DC 20402. ◆

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB89-193, December 8, 1989.

continued

WORLD POPULATION GROWTH continued

World Population Growth, by Region and Development Category, 1950 to 2020

(Population in millions and may not add to totals due to rounding)

Region	Midyear population 1950	1960	1970	1980	1989	1990	2000	2010	2020
World	2,565	3,050	3,721	4,477	5,239	5,333	6,291	7,255	8,281
Developing	1,733	2,105	2,672	3,340	4,035	4,122	5,021	5,940	6,936
Developed	832	945	1,049	1,137	1,204	1,211	1,270	1,315	1,345
Sub-Saharan Africa	194	239	305	403	526	542	739	992	1,297
Near East and North Africa	87	112	144	191	246	253	328	414	509
Asia	1,368	1,628	2,037	2,494	2,939	2,994	3,536	4,027	4,533
Developing	1,284	1,533	1,933	2,377	2,816	2,870	3,406	3,895	4,402
Developed	84	94	104	117	123	124	129	133	131
Latin America and the Caribbean	166	218	286	364	442	450	540	630	716
North America	166	199	226	252	275	277	296	312	324
Europe	392	425	460	484	498	499	511	513	510
Soviet Union	180	214	243	266	289	291	312	334	355
Oceania	12	16	19	23	26	26	30	33	36
Developing	2	3	4	5	6	6	8	9	11
Developed	10	13	15	18	20	20	22	24	25
Excluding China									
World	2,002	2,399	2,901	3,494	4,127	4,203	5,000	5,656	6,758
Developing	1,170	1,454	1,852	2,357	2,923	2,992	3,730	4,541	5,413
Asia	805	977	1,217	1,511	1,827	1,864	2,244	2,629	3,010
Developing	721	883	1,113	1,394	1,703	1,740	2,115	2,497	2,879

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB89-193, December 8,1989.

continued

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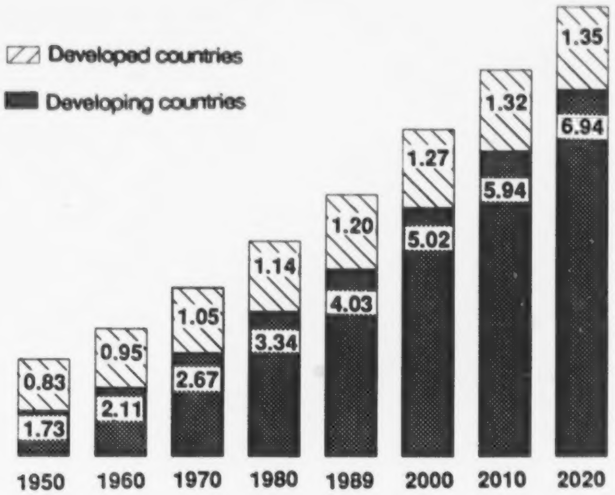
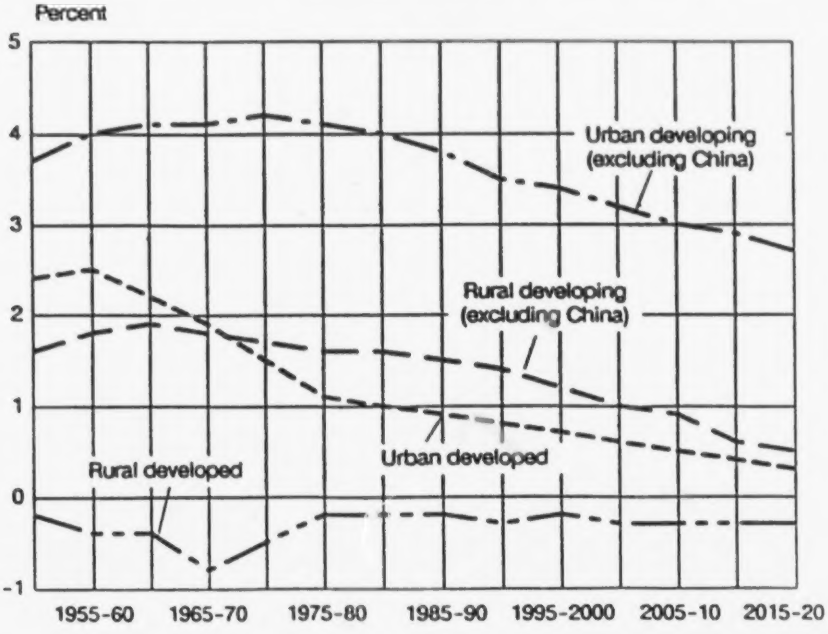
WORLD POPULATION GROWTH continued

World Population by Development Category: 1950 to 2020

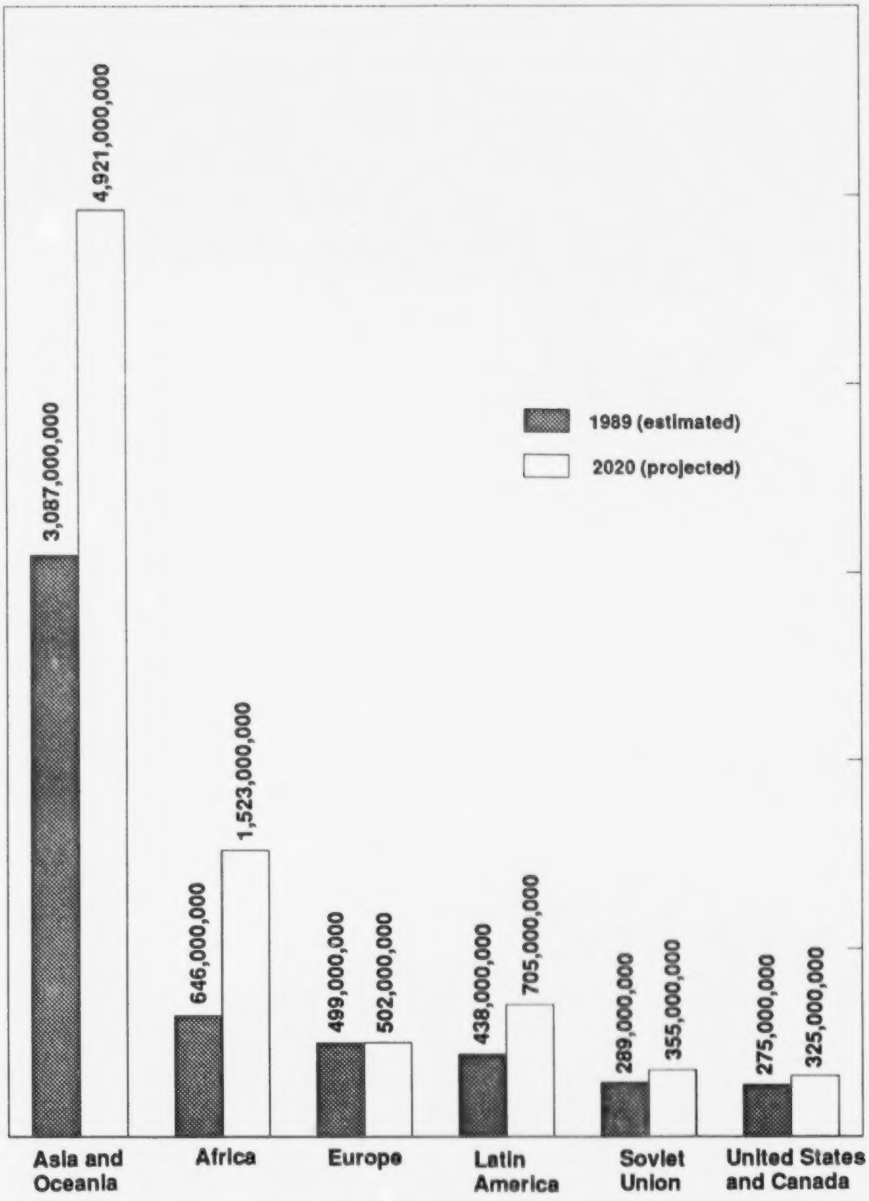


Average Annual Percent Change in Urban and Rural Population, by Development Category: 1950 to 2020



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release
CB89-193, December 8, 1989.

PROJECTED WORLD POPULATION GROWTH BY REGION THROUGH YEAR 2020



World Eagle graph. Data from Population Reference Bureau, Inc. 1989 World Population Data Sheet.

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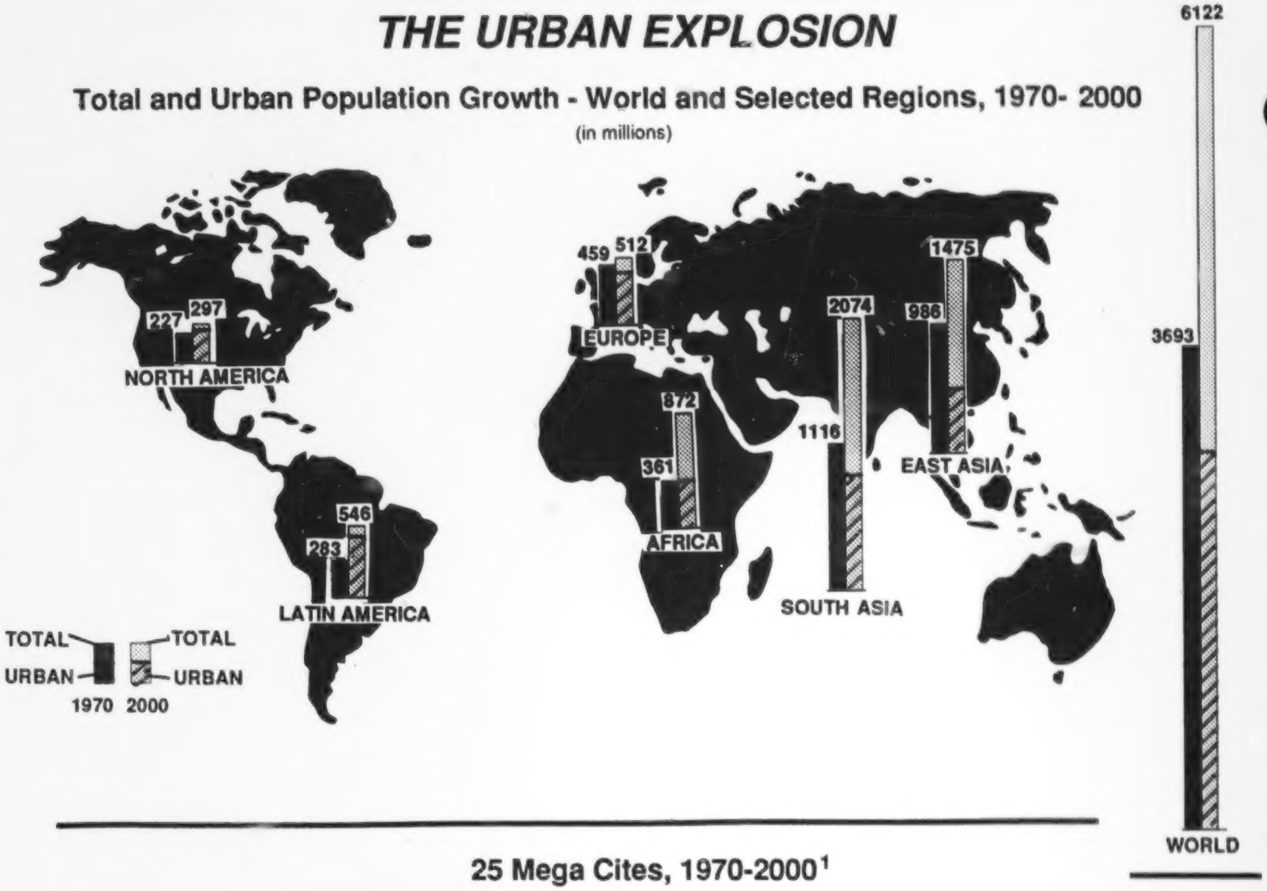
THE URBAN EXPLOSION

Total and Urban Population Growth - World and Selected Regions, 1970- 2000

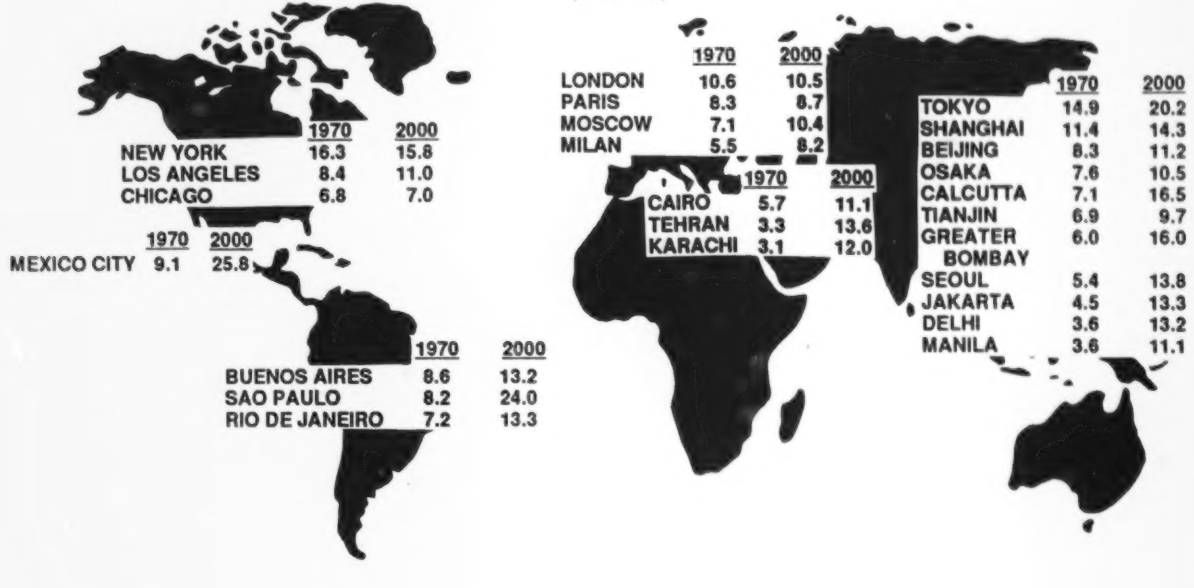
(in millions)



227
297
NORTH AMERICA
459
512
EUROPE
872
361
AFRICA
2074
1116
SOUTH ASIA
1475
986
EAST ASIA
546
283
LATIN AMERICA
6122
3693
WORLD
TOTAL
URBAN
1970
2000
TOTAL
URBAN

25 Mega Cites, 1970-2000[1]

(in millions)



	1970	2000
NEW YORK	16.3	15.8
LOS ANGELES	8.4	11.0
CHICAGO	6.8	7.0

	1970	2000
MEXICO CITY	9.1	25.8

	1970	2000
BUENOS AIRES	8.6	13.2
SAO PAULO	8.2	24.0
RIO DE JANEIRO	7.2	13.3

	1970	2000
LONDON	10.6	10.5
PARIS	8.3	8.7
MOSCOW	7.1	10.4
MILAN	5.5	8.2

	1970	2000
CAIRO	5.7	11.1
TEHRAN	3.3	13.6
KARACHI	3.1	12.0

	1970	2000
TOKYO	14.9	20.2
SHANGHAI	11.4	14.3
BEIJING	8.3	11.2
OSAKA	7.6	10.5
CALCUTTA	7.1	16.5
TIANJIN	6.9	9.7
GREATER BOMBAY	6.0	16.0
SEOUL	5.4	13.8
JAKARTA	4.5	13.3
DELHI	3.6	13.2
MANILA	3.6	11.1

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1 These are urban areas with a population of 2 million or more in 1985.

World Eagle illustrations adapted from Finance and Development (by The International Monetary Fund and The World Bank), December 1989. p. 47

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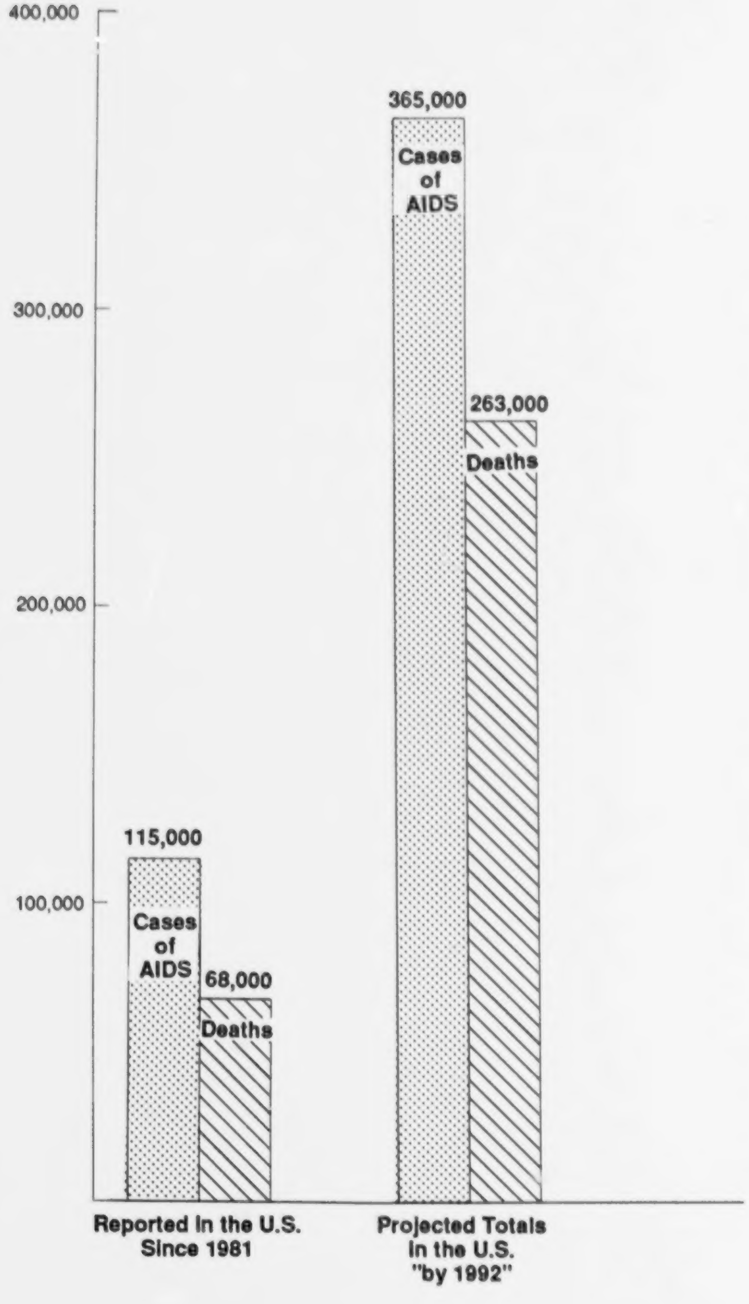
AIDS: THE SIZE OF THE PROBLEM



"The worldwide total of AIDS cases is currently estimated at more than 500,000, with an estimated six to eight million people infected with HIV."

"Federal spending on AIDS [in the U.S.] for Fiscal Year 90 is estimated at $1.59 billion for the Public Health Service and $2.93 billion overall."

AIDS	**Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome**
HIV	**Human Immunodeficiency Virus**

World Eagle chart. Data and text from The Library of Congress. Congressional Research Service. CRS Review, January-February 1990. P. 20

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THE REVOLVING DOOR OF POVERTY

For some Americans, poverty is a persistent situation, but for others, a new job or a marriage provides the means for escape. Unfortunately, those who escape from poverty often are replaced by others who become poor. About one-fourth of all persons who were in poverty in 1984 were not poor in 1985, and just over one-fifth of the poor in 1985 were not in poverty the year before.

Data from the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP) provide this glimpse of how the poor population changes from year to year. Unlike the Current Population Survey, SIPP measures the economic well-being of Americans over time, so data are available on changes in status. Details of these year-to-year changes in poverty status are in the report cited at the end of this brief.

A job does not guarantee an escape from poverty.

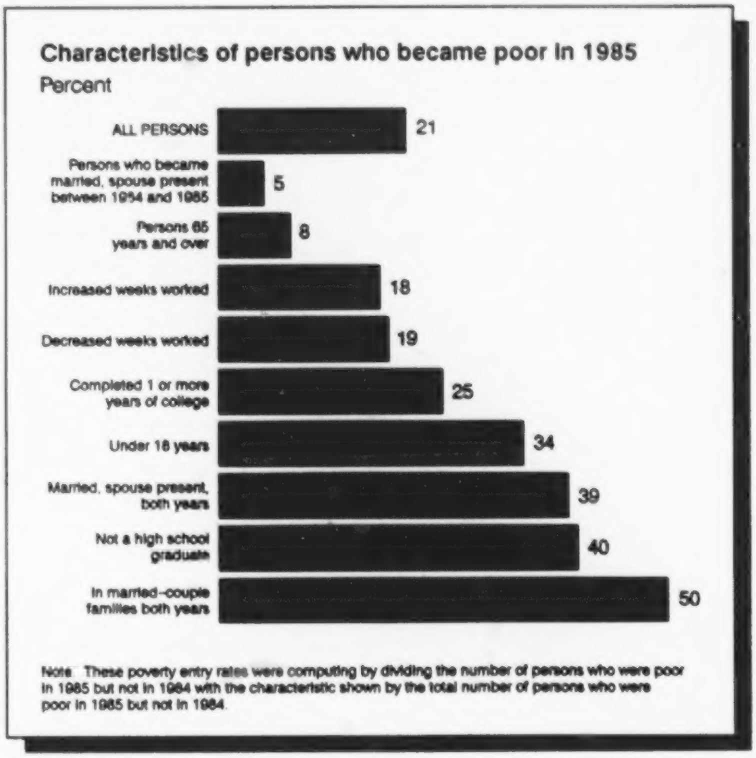
Twenty-seven percent of adults 18 years old and over who were poor in 1984 exited poverty in 1985. But among those who increased their work from part of 1984 to a full time job for all of 1985, 72 percent moved out of the poor population. Persons who remained poor in both years were less likely to have worked than persons who were able to exit poverty: 60 percent of persons who were poor in both years did not work either year, compared with 27 percent who were no longer poor in 1985.

A job is not necessarily sufficient protection against poverty. Some people fell into poverty even though they worked year-round, full-time in both 1984 and 1985 (9 percent of adults who became poor in 1985) or increased their work effort during these years (another 8 percent).

Some of the people who did not work in either year but were still able to escape from poverty may have been able to do so because of an increase in work time or earnings of another family member, a change in family composition, the receipt of income other than earnings, or a combination of these factors.

Changes in family composition can mean a way out of or into poverty.

Persons in families share resources and generally act as an economic unit. For this reason, the official poverty definition


Characteristics of persons who became poor in 1985

Percent

Note: These poverty entry rates were computing by dividing the number of persons who were poor in 1985 but not in 1984 with the characteristic shown by the total number of persons who were poor in 1985 but not in 1984.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census SB-1-90.
Issued January 1990.

continued

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THE REVOLVING DOOR OF POVERTY continued

takes into account family size and composition. A change in family size can result in a change in poverty status even if there are no changes in income. About one-half of poor persons who became part of a married-couple family were no longer poor in 1985, compared with one-third of those in married-couple families in both years.

A stable marriage does not necessarily protect against poverty: one-half of persons who became poor in 1985 were in married-couple families in both 1984 and 1985.

Children and the elderly are considerably more likely to remain poor.

Eight out of 10 children under 18 who were poor in 1984 were still poor in 1985; the proportion for the elderly was the same. In contrast, only 64 percent of adults 18 to 24 years old who were poor in 1984 stayed poor in 1985. As young adults are completing school, forming their own families, and entering the workforce for the first time, their chances of moving out of poverty increase.

Poverty is more persistent among Blacks.

About 26 percent of Whites and 20 percent of Blacks who were poor in 1984 were no longer poor the following year. The remainder of the poor in 1984 were still poor in 1985.

The "near-poor" are at greater risk of becoming poor.

Persons whose income is between 100 and 125 percent of the poverty threshold are the near-poor. Twenty-two percent of persons in near-poor households in 1984 were poor in 1985, compared with only 2 percent of persons in households that were not near-poor in 1984.

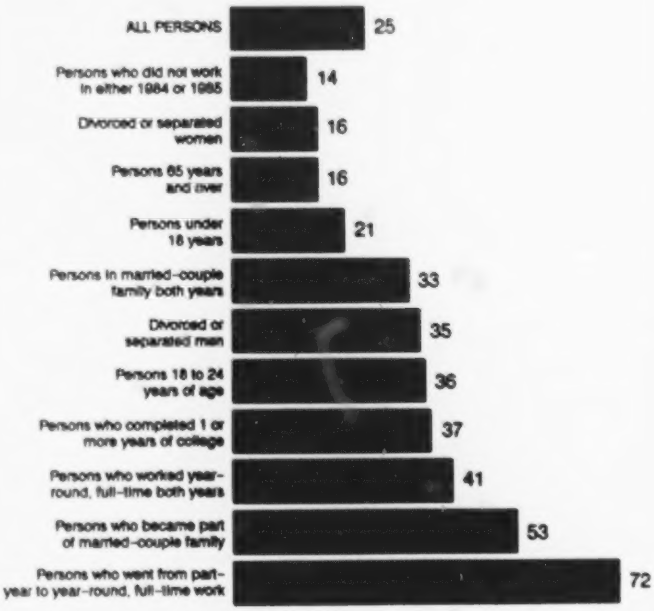
However, the majority of persons who moved into or out of poverty between 1984 and 1985 did so with a substantial change in status, from poor to above 125 percent of the poverty threshold or vice versa. These data suggest that the change in status resulted from a substantial economic shift or a change in the household rather than from a minor fluctuation in income.

For Information on Poverty
See:

Current Population Reports, Series P-70, No. 15-RD-1, Transitions in Income and Poverty Status: 1984-85. (For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402. Stock number 803-044-00003-1. $3.00.For telephone orders, call (202) 783-3238.) ❖

Characteristics of persons who escaped from poverty in 1985

Percent



Note: These poverty exit rates were computed by dividing the number of persons who were above the poverty level in 1985 but were poor in 1984 by the total number of persons who were poor in 1984, with the characteristic shown.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census SB-1-90.
Issued January 1990.

CONNECTICUT AND NEW JERSEY HAD HIGHEST PER CAPITA INCOME IN 1987

Connecticut and New Jersey had the highest per capita income in 1987, according to the Commerce Department's Census Bureau.

Connecticut, with a per capita income of $16, 094, replaced Alaska, which led the nation in 1979. New Jersey, ranked second in 1987 with $15,028, moved up from seventh. Alaska slipped to eighth. Mississippi continued to rank last at $8,088.

Other notable upward shifts were Massachusetts, from 17th to fifth; Virginia, from 16th to sixth; New Hampshire, from 29th to seventh; and Rhode Island, from 32nd to 15th.

Significant drops were recorded by Washington, from eighth to 19th; Wyoming, from 11th to 39th; and Oregon, from 14th to 32nd.

Among the nation's 3,139 counties and independent cities with a population over 100, the city of Falls Church, Va., ranked first with a per capita income of $23,169. It replaced Bristol Bay, Alaska, which fell to 18th place. Remaining among the highest 10 counties were Arlington, Va.; Marin, Calif.; Montgomery, Md.; and Fairfax, Va.

Economic problems continued to affect some counties, the lowest income being recorded by Starr County, Texas, with $3,464. Eight of the 10 counties with the lowest income in 1987 were also among the bottom 10 in 1979.

The first table attached to this release ranks the states and the District of Columbia for per capita income in 1987 and 1979, with the dollar amounts listed for 1987 and percent change from 1979 to 1987. The second table shows the 10 highest and lowest counties, including county equivalents and independent cities.

The 1987 income estimates, based on the 1980 census, were updated using rates of change developed from administrative records primarily from the Internal Revenue Service and the Commerce Department's Bureau of Economic Analysis.

Per capita income estimates for all states, counties, cities, and functioning county subareas (such as townships and New England towns) will be published this spring in Current Population Reports, Series P-26. Meanwhile these estimates are available on CENDATA (see bottom of page one of this release) and can be obtained on computer tape or paper copy. Call (301) - 763-8576 for further details. ◆

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Release CB90-36, March 1, 1990.

PER CAPITA MONEY INCOME IN 1987, RANKED BY STATE

State	Amount (dollars)	Percent Change 1979-1987	Rankings 1987	Rankings 1979
Connecticut	16,094	89.1	1	3
New Jersey	15,028	84.9	2	7
District of Columbia	14,778	65.0	3	2
Maryland	14,697	77.2	4	6
Massachusetts	14,389	93.0	5	17
Virginia	13,658	82.7	6	16
New Hampshire	13,529	94.2	7	29
Alaska	13,263	30.1	8	1
California	13,197	59.1	9	5
New York	13,167	75.7	10	15
Delaware	12,785	71.6	11	19
Nevada	12,603	49.1	12	4
Florida	12,456	71.6	13	22
Illinois	12,437	54.2	14	9
Rhode Island	12,351	79.1	15	32
Hawaii	12,290	58.8	16	12
Minnesota	12,281	64.8	17	18
Colorado	12,271	53.4	18	10
Washington	12,184	50.9	19	8
Michigan	11,973	55.7	20	13
Pennsylvania	11,544	63.2	21	27
Arizona	11,521	63.6	22	28
Kansas	11,520	56.8	23	20
Wisconsin	11,417	57.7	24	23
Georgia	11,406	78.8	25	37
Ohio	11,323	55.5	26	21
Vermont	11,234	81.9	27	41
Missouri	11,203	62.0	28	31
Iowa	11,198	56.9	29	26
Nebraska	11,139	60.6	30	30
Indiana	11,078	55.1	31	25
Oregon	11,045	46.2	32	14
North Carolina	10,856	77.0	33	43
Texas	10,645	47.8	34	24
Maine	10,478	81.7	35	48
Tennessee	10,448	68.2	36	40
South Carolina	9,967	69.4	37	47
Oklahoma	9,927	44.8	38	33
Wyoming	9,826	24.0	39	11
North Dakota	9,641	50.2	40	36
Alabama	9,615	63.2	41	46
New Mexico	9,434	54.2	42	44
Kentucky	9,380	57.0	43	45
Montana	9,322	41.5	44	34
Utah	9,288	47.3	45	38
Idaho	9,159	46.6	46	39
Arkansas	9,061	61.4	47	50
West Virginia	8,980	46.2	48	42
Louisiana	8,961	39.5	49	35
South Dakota	8,910	56.4	50	49
Mississippi	8,088	56.1	51	51

HIGHEST AND LOWEST TEN COUNTIES IN 1987, RANKED BY PER CAPITA INCOME

(Counties or independent cities with July 1, 1988 population of more than 100)

County or Independent City	State	Amount (dollars)	Percent change 1979-1987	Ranking 1987	Ranking 1979
Highest					
Falls Church City	Virginia	23,169	79.8	1	2
Alexandria City	Virginia	22,200	82.3	2	7
Arlington	Virginia	22,181	76.6	3	3
Marin	California	21,611	75.2	4	6
Montgomery	Maryland	21,576	74.9	5	5
New York	New York	20,904	94.0	6	14
Fairfax	Virginia	20,805	80.9	7	10
Nantucket	Massachusetts	20,405	104.3	8	38
Somerset	New Jersey	20,171	99.3	9	32
Fairfield	Connecticut	20,093	93.1	10	28
Lowest					
Starr	Texas	3,464	29.8	1	3
Shannon	South Dakota	3,943	49.5	2	1
Buffalo	South Dakota	4,250	60.9	3	2
Maverick	Texas	4,269	37.7	4	7
Jefferson	Mississippi	4,413	35.3	5	13
Tunica	Mississippi	4,625	42.3	6	12
Zavala	Texas	4,646	45.1	7	9
Ziebach	South Dakota	4,688	54.1	8	5
Wade Hampton	Alaska	4,724	47.5	9	10
Owsley	Kentucky	4,747	61.1	10	4

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Release
CB90-36, March 1, 1990

A Year Old, But Still Worth Noting
DISCRETIONARY INCOME

We had planned to print the following in our September 1989 issue. Through an editing error, that didn't happen.

About 30 percent of American households have income above that required for "comfortable" living, according to a report published by the Commerce Department's Census Bureau and the Conference Board's Consumer Research Center. The Conference Board is a not-for-profit business information service located in New York City

The report defines the amount of income after payment of taxes and normal household expenditures as discretionary. Such income totaled nearly $320 billion as measured in the Census Bureau's March 1987 Current Population Survey, or about 15 percent of total income received by households after taxes.

The study provides detailed data on discretionary income according to age, education, household size, two-earner families, race, and other characteristics. Information is also provided for the nation's nine major geographic regions.

This is the third in a series of reports on discretionary income, prepared jointly by the Bureau of the Census and the Conference Board.

The latest study shows a 22 percent increase in real discretionary income compared with the preceding report issued four years ago. The increase is due partly to a rise in the number of U.S. households and partly to a rise in average discretionary income per household, which rose from approximately $11,000 to $12,300 during the four-year period.

Other major findings in the study:

. Households with two or more people earning a paycheck account for 65 percent of all U.S. discretionary dollars. Most of this income is in families where both the husband and wife are working.

. While only about 17 percent fo households have pre-tax incomes of $50,000 or more, they control close to 80 percent of all discretionary income.

. While slightly over a fifth of all householders have a college degree, they account for more than half of all discretionary income.

. The young (those under age 35) and the old (those over 65) hold a disproportionately small share of total discretionary buying power; however, older households have a relatively high discretionary income per person because of their smaller average household size.

. Homeowners are twice as likely as renters to have money available for discretionary spending.

. Both Blacks and Hispanics are only half as likely as Whites to have discretionary income.

. Homes in the suburbs of major metropolitan areas are one and one-half times as likely to be in the discretionary income class as households in the central cities.

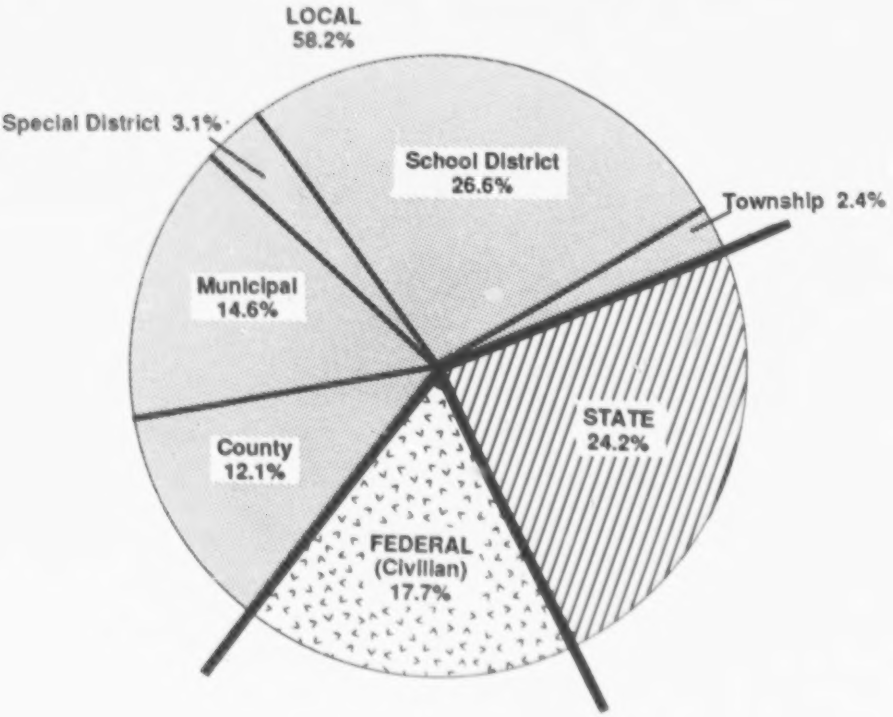
. A well-above-average 34 percent of all homes in the New England states have discretionary income. The incidence also runs high in the Pacific and South Atlantic regions.

. In the Mountain, Middle Atlantic and East South Central states, the prevalence of discretionary income homes tends to be below the national average.

Copies of the study, A Marketer's Guide to Discretionary Income, are available from the Income Statistics Branch, Housing and Household Economic Statistics Division, Bureau of the Census, Washington DC 20233. ❖

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.
Release CB89-85, May 25, 1989.

PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT GROWTH IN 1988 WAS LED BY THAT IN EDUCATION AND CORRECTIONAL SYSTEMS



Employees in all levels of government totaled 17.6 million in October 1988, up some 300,000 or 1.8 percent over October 1987, according to the Commerce Department's Census Bureau.

More than one-half, or 7.5 million, of all state and local workers are employed in education activities. The education field has gained the largest actual number of workers, 888,000, during the past five years. The average gain was 2 percent annually.

The number of corrections system workers in state and local government jumped 8 percent from 1987 to 1988. During the last five years, corrections employment increased by an average annual rate of 7.8 percent at these government levels. This was the fastest growth rate of all government functions.

More than three-fifths of civilians employed by the federal government are working in the postal service, national defense, and international relations activities.

Federal government civilian employment remained about the same at 3.1 million in October 1988, gaining 21,000 workers during the year. The federal civilian workforce in 1988 ranged from nearly 350,000 in California to more than 5,000 in Vermont.

World Eagle chart. Data and text from U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB89-186, November 29, 1989.

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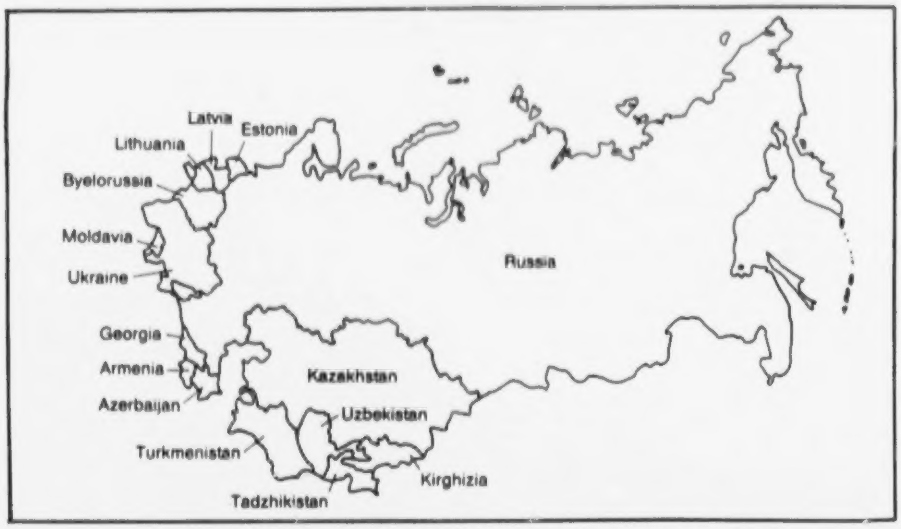
PROFILES

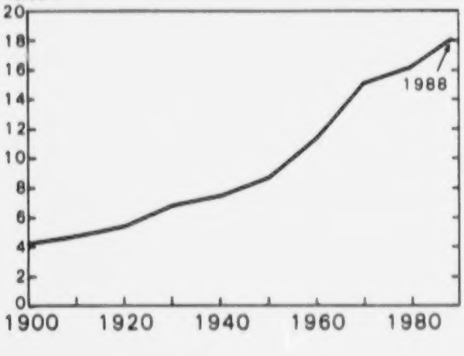


THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS (USSR)

Only half of the Soviet Union's 288 million people are Russians. Another 20 percent, including the Byelorussians and Ukrainians, are of Slavic origin. The rest come from a variety of different backgrounds. There are Balts, Georgians, Armenians, and Muslims from Central Asia, among others. In all, there are over 100 different nationalities in the USSR who speak a language other than Russian as their native tongue.

The United States economy, over the course of the twentieth century, has taken on a highly professional cast. Using Bureau of Census occupational definitions, just 4 percent of all persons employed in 1900 were "professional, technical and kindred" workers. But this "professional ratio" doubled to 9 percent by 1950; and it doubled again, to 18 percent, by 1988 (chart 1). Professional, technical, and kindred workers have also become prominent across a far broader range of industries in the years since 1950. Such workers then clustered in a small corner of the economy. But by 1988, they made up 20 percent of the labor force in industries ranging from health care and education, to high tech manufacturing and business services, to government and entertainment. In terms of international competitiveness, income per worker, and technical advance, this group of professionalized industries forms perhaps the most successful sector of the U.S. economy.

Ratio of Professional, Technical, and Kindred Workers to Total Employed Persons, 1900-88



The opening paragraph, and chart 1, of an article by Steven A. Sass, economist, Federal Reserve Bank of Boston, in that institution's January/February 1990 issue of New England Economic Review. Pp. 37-55.

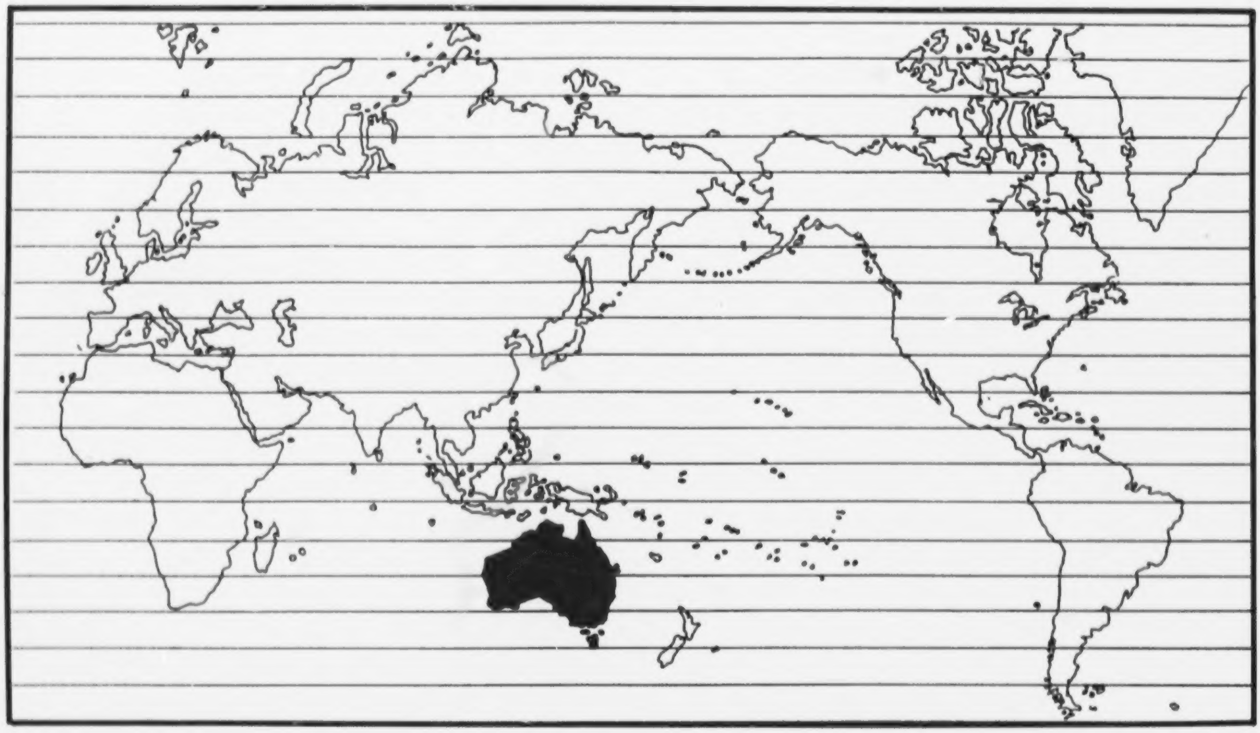
CAUSE AND EFFECT

1. Oil is getting harder to find in the U.S. Prices, though rising recently, are still too low to stimulate enough drilling to counter the decline of aging oil fields.
2. U.S. oil production suffered its biggest single-year decline ever in 1989.
3. Imported share of U.S. oil use increased to near-record 46% in 1989. (For 1973-1988 figures, refer to World Eagle, January 1990, p. 8.)
4. U.S. imports over exports of Total Petroleum and Selected Products in 1989 were $44.7 billion and accounted for 41% of the U.S. merchandise trade deficit for that year.
5. If oil prices continue to increase (but not enough to stimulate increased U.S. drilling), they will be a force acting to widen further the U.S. trade deficit.

Sources: New York Times, January 18, 1990, p. 1 and telephone with the International Trade Administration, Washington DC.

AUSTRALIA CENTERED

The map below was part of a publication, Australia/USA: Shared Values, Shared Goals, which celebrated Australia's bicentenary in 1988. It was produced by The Keating Group, Inc., New York, NY, for the Government of Australia.



Separating the Pacific and Indian Oceans, Australia is strategically placed on the rim of Asia. A young nation — it is celebrating its bicentenary this year — Australia is modern, rich in resources, dependent on trade, and increasingly conscious that the countries around it — of which the United States is one — are the key to its own future.

Australia is situated in a region which includes the politically, economically and strategically significant countries of Asia and the many newly independent nations of the South Pacific.

Australia recognizes the importance and growing complexity of international economic issues, particularly the effects of problems in world trade, such as the growth of protectionism, economic development issues, including debt, and the continuing importance of energy supply to economic growth.

Questions:

. Do the east-west lines shown represent "major" parallels of latitude?

. Does one of the lines represent the Equator? Which one?

. Can your students indicate the locations of five national capitals? Ten? Twenty?

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NEGOTIATION PROJECT TEACHES TEENS TO DEAL WITH CONFLICT

The following article is reprinted form Harvard University's Harvard Gazette, January 5, 1990. P.9.

Seniors at a New Hampshire high school are solving conflicts that range from family disputes to international diplomacy issues, using the same methods taught at Harvard Law School.

The students are participants in the first pilot group for the Harvard Negotiation Project's "Building Bridges" high school curriculum, a program that helps students learn how to handle conflict.

The 5-to-10-hour Building Bridges program can be integrated into classes such as social studies, life skills, business, and current events. The exercises, readings, and class discussions offer students problem-solving tools to use as nonadversarial alternatives to aggression, violence, or passive acceptance in the face of discord. These tools include the ability to empathize, identify common interests, generate creative options, and employ objective standards of fairness.

"In this way, we hope to give students a sense of control over their own lives as well as a framework for understanding conflict on a societal level," said Doug Stone, JD '84, managing director of the Building Bridges program.

"Conflict is a fact of life," said Roger Fisher, Williston Professor of Law and general director of the Harvard Negotiation Project. "Helping young people deal with conflict more effectively is one of the most important skills we can teach them."

Building Bridges was created by Fisher and Stone as an outgrowth of the successful Harvard Negotiation Project, now in its tenth year. In addition to writing about and teaching negotiation, members of the Harvard Negotiation Project also work as consultants and mediators to help solve regional and global conflicts. For example, Project representatives have worked with South African labor and management negotiators, as well as with Soviet and U.S. diplomats.

Stone commented, "Our nonadversarial method of dealing with differences is really swimming against the current. Reacting to conflict with anger and violence have been familiar behaviors since the time we fought over toys in the sandbox. The Harvard Negotiation Project's approach has been widely successful with teachers, administrators, business executives, and diplomats. We think it can make a big difference in the day-to-day lives of teenagers, too."

The Building Bridges curriculum was specifically shaped to have an immediate, real-world impact on the way students handle conflict. Consequently, it was designed around a series of one-on-one role plays between friends, siblings, or parent and child. The range of conflicts will eventually be expanded to include historical and current international issues.

In one simulation at the Weare, N.H., social studies classroom, the students are provided with confidential instructions describing a sibling conflict in such a way that each party is certain he or she is right. Midway through the negotiation, the students are surprised by being asked to trade instructions and reverse roles. The exercise becomes a real-life demonstration of how partisan perceptions influence thoughts and behavior.

A second pilot was recently begun at a Westwood, Mass., high school. Over the next several months, the Building Bridges pilot will be expanded to both inner-city and suburban schools throughout Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Virginia, and Florida. The curriculum will be taught by teachers, school administrators, and/or members of the Harvard Negotiation Project, and even other high school students.

The ultimate goal is to make Building Bridges available to every high school in the country. Teacher and student handbooks are being written by Fisher and Stone, who hope to make the handbooks available through a commercial publisher at a reasonable price.

In addition, Stone plans to present a negotiation seminar to 300 4-H Club members at their annual student leadership meeting in Washington, D.C., in April.

Stone has a personal interest in the violence-preventing potential of the negotiation process. While an undergraduate at Brown University in 1978, he was a victim of a random assault by two black men after the university failed to respond to a situation in which a white student, shouting racial slurs, had thrown a jar of white ink at a black woman.

"The problem wasn't just racism," said Stone. "It was that no one knew how to deal with the tension. The assault—if not the ink-throwing incident—could have been prevented if the process for dealing with differences had been more effective. I'm hopeful that if youngsters learn to handle conflict it will not only empower them, but also decrease the level of violence in our society."

— *Shirley Reva Levine*

U.S. MERCHANDISE TRADE FIGURES, 1980-1989

-- Calendar Years --

The combined annual export-import merchandise trade of the U.S. has grown from $35 billion in 1960 to $837 billion in 1989.

I. TOTAL U.S. Merchandcise Trade

	Exports (FAS)	Imports (Customs Value)	Trade Deficit
1980	$220.6263	$244.8706	$24.2443
1981	233.6770	261.3049	27.6279
1982	212.1931	243.9519	31.7588
1983	200.4858	258.0478	57.5620
1984	217.8652	325.7257	107.8605
1985	213.1330	345.2755	132.1425
1986	217.3042	369.9614	152.6572
1987r	254.1219	406.2410	152.1191
1988r	322.4264	440.9523	118.5259
1989	364.3498	472.9258	108.5760

r = revised

II. Of the TOTALS Above in I, The Following Were For U.S. Agricultural Commodities:

	Exports (FAS)	Imports (Customs Value)	Trade Surplus
1980	$42.256	$17.366	$23.890
1981	43.3369	16.7783	26.5586
1982	37.0107	15.4217	21.5890
1983	36.4558	16.5341	19.9217
1984	38.2309	19.7630	18.4679
1985	29.6187	20.0045	9.6142
1986	26.6186	21.2844	5.3342
1987	28.6362	20.0403	8.5949
1988	37.0152	21.2076	15.8076
1989	40.0033	22.0992	17.9041

III. Of The TOTALS Above in I, The Following Were For Total Petroleum and Selected Products:

	Exports (FAS)	Imports (Customs Value)	Trade Deficit
1980	$2.8	$78.6368	$75.8368
1981	3.6958	76.7118	73.0160
1982	5.9473	76.6589	70.7116
1983	4.5574	53.2168[*]	48.6594
1984	4.469	56.9247[+]	52.4544
1985	4.7071	50.4752[#]	45.7681
1986	3.6395	35.1423[**]	31.5028
1987	3.9201	42.2854[***]	38.3653
1988	3.6792	38.8542[##]	35.1750
1989	4.9398	49.6239[###]	44.6841

[*] $36.8091 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum
[+] $36.5288 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum
[#] $33.034 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum
[**] $22.7205 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum
[***] $29.3205 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum
[##] $25.8441 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum
[###] $35.4002 billion of these imports was for Crude Petroleum

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce. International Trade Administration and Bureau of the Census.

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World Eagle
64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF THE U.S. NONINSTITUTIONAL POPULATION 16 YEARS AND OVER, 1955 TO DATE

(Numbers in thousands)

Year and month	Noninstitutional population	Labor force									Not in labor force
		Number	Percent of population	Employed					Unemployed		
				Total	Resident Armed Forces	Civilian			Number	Percent of labor force	
						Total	Agriculture	Nonagricultural industries			
	Annual averages										
1956	112,919	68,517	60.7	65,764	1,965	63,799	6,283	57,514	2,750	4.0	44,402
1957	114,213	68,877	60.3	66,019	1,948	64,071	5,947	58,123	2,859	4.2	45,336
1958	115,574	69,486	60.1	64,883	1,847	63,036	5,586	57,450	4,602	6.6	46,088
1959	117,117	70,157	59.9	66,418	1,788	64,630	5,565	59,065	3,740	5.3	46,960
1960[1]	119,106	71,489	60.0	67,639	1,861	65,778	5,458	60,318	3,852	5.4	47,617
1961	120,671	72,359	60.0	67,646	1,900	65,746	5,200	60,546	4,714	6.5	48,312
1962[1]	122,214	72,675	59.5	68,763	2,061	66,702	4,944	61,759	3,911	5.4	49,539
1963	124,422	73,839	59.3	69,768	2,006	67,762	4,687	63,076	4,070	5.5	50,583
1964	126,503	75,109	59.4	71,323	2,018	69,305	4,523	64,782	3,786	5.0	51,394
1965	128,459	76,401	59.5	73,034	1,946	71,088	4,361	66,726	3,366	4.4	52,058
1966	130,180	77,892	59.8	75,017	2,122	72,895	3,979	68,915	2,875	3.7	52,288
1967	132,092	79,565	60.2	76,590	2,218	74,372	3,844	70,527	2,975	3.7	52,527
1968	134,281	80,990	60.3	78,173	2,253	75,920	3,817	72,103	2,817	3.5	53,291
1969	136,573	82,972	60.8	80,140	2,238	77,902	3,606	74,296	2,832	3.4	53,602
1970	139,203	84,889	61.0	80,796	2,118	78,678	3,463	75,215	4,093	4.8	54,315
1971	142,189	86,355	60.7	81,340	1,973	79,367	3,394	75,972	5,016	5.8	55,834
1972[1]	145,939	88,847	60.9	83,966	1,813	82,153	3,484	78,669	4,882	5.5	57,091
1973[1]	148,870	91,203	61.3	86,838	1,774	85,064	3,470	81,594	4,365	4.8	57,667
1974	151,841	93,670	61.7	88,515	1,721	86,794	3,515	83,279	5,156	5.5	58,171
1975	154,831	95,453	61.6	87,524	1,678	85,846	3,408	82,438	7,929	8.3	59,377
1976	157,818	97,826	62.0	90,420	1,668	88,752	3,331	85,421	7,406	7.6	59,991
1977	160,689	100,665	62.6	93,673	1,656	92,017	3,283	88,734	6,991	6.9	60,025
1978[1]	163,541	103,882	63.5	97,679	1,631	96,048	3,387	92,661	6,202	6.0	59,659
1979	166,460	106,559	64.0	100,421	1,597	98,824	3,347	95,477	6,137	5.8	59,900
1980	169,349	108,544	64.1	100,907	1,604	99,303	3,364	95,938	7,637	7.0	60,806
1981	171,775	110,315	64.2	102,042	1,645	100,397	3,368	97,030	8,273	7.5	61,460
1982	173,939	111,872	64.3	101,194	1,668	99,526	3,401	96,125	10,678	9.5	62,067
1983	175,891	113,226	64.4	102,510	1,676	100,834	3,383	97,450	10,717	9.5	62,665
1984	178,080	115,241	64.7	106,702	1,697	105,005	3,321	101,685	8,539	7.4	62,839
1985	179,912	117,167	65.1	108,856	1,706	107,150	3,179	103,971	8,312	7.1	62,744
1986[1]	182,293	119,540	65.6	111,303	1,706	109,597	3,163	106,434	8,237	6.9	62,752
1987	184,490	121,602	65.9	114,177	1,737	112,440	3,208	109,232	7,425	6.1	62,888
1988	186,322	123,378	66.2	116,677	1,709	114,968	3,169	111,800	6,701	5.4	62,944
1989	188,081	125,557	66.8	119,030	1,688	117,342	3,199	114,142	6,528	5.2	62,523

Source: U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Employment and Earnings, January 1990. Table A-1.

OPINION

EMERGING FOREIGN POLICY CONCERNS

Admiral Bobby R. Inman

The following is reprinted from The Library of Congress, Congressional Research Service, CRS Review, January-February 1990. Pp. 15-17.

As we begin to contemplate the twenty-first century, it is important to understand the biases and assumptions in foreign policy that were clearly formed in the years immediately following World War II, 1946–50. It was during that time that the United States shaped a national security policy that has endured more than 40 years. Yet today one cannot think about foreign policy in the purity that we thought about it in the late 1940s through the 1950s. I think the most important factor in looking back at that period is that economics simply was not considered a fundamental part of our long-term national security needs. As late as 1960, international trade was still less than 3 percent of our overall GNP. That has changed dramatically and continues to change.

The other point that I want to emphasize in looking back at the U.S. position relative to the rest of the world is that we set out to structure our ability to influence events in the outside world in what I call a forward-deployed strategy. We structured the size and deployment of defense forces around a series of treaties, alliances, and bases. We primarily thought of our presence in the world as part of a peace-keeping role, a fundamental part of our overall foreign policy strategy. Along the way we added foreign aid, beginning with the Marshall Plan; we also added arms control. I would argue, as late as 1989, that we still have not really integrated international trade into the policymaking process of how one thinks about national security policy, and that is what will be important in the future for the broad foreign policy scheme.

In trying to make projections about the twenty-first century and foreign policy, we also have to look at current trends. Some of the most pronounced trends today are the decline of Communism in its appeal to people who are in economic and political travail, the proliferation of sophisticated means of conducting combat, the shift of economic power, and the spread of technology.

Regional Developments

With this perspective, I offer my broad-brush views on a number of different regions where challenges in the next century are likely to have an impact on U.S. foreign policy.

U.S.S.R. I think there are two possible directions that Soviet developments might take, and since we do not know which will prevail, we have to plan for both. One is chaos. The inability of the governing structure to meet the fundamental economic needs of its population, coupled with the difficulties created by nationality problems, could undermine Gorbachev's ability to govern. The other possible direction is economic evolution. The Communist Party is still trying to hold on and is pushing for development of a multiparty approach. That approach is a likely outcome, in my judgment, only if the Soviet Union is able to draw massive amounts of external investment. Is that achievable? Is it feasible? Possibly. One place to watch is West Germany, but an even better candidate is Japan. The outcome, if the Soviets decide to give back the four southern-most Kurile Islands, will change the equation with Japan.

Eastern Europe. Determination of who governs is at the top of the list. One wonders if Solidarity has been set up for a fall by being given responsibilities at a time when the economic prospects are so grim that something short of a miracle is needed to help orchestrate first a belt-tightening and then some real economic progress. That, ultimately, is going to decide, not only the future of Poland but probably also the outcome of the whole experiment for other East European countries. The key to who governs is still Gorbachev and his attitude about whether these freedom movements help or hurt his own economic problems.

Another key development to watch in Eastern Europe is the issue of economic progress. If progress is achieved, or if a sharp split occurs—if Hungary is successful and has a standard of living that begins to rise but that does not occur in some of the other East European countries—the uneven-

continued

Admiral Bobby R. Inman, who has a long and distinguished career in naval intelligence and with NSA and CIA, recently served as chairman, president, and chief executive officer of Westmark Systems, Incorporated.

ness will create pressures for turmoil in that part of the world.

Western Europe. One major factor in looking out for our national security policy in Western Europe is, if we are lucky enough to keep NATO alive into the twenty-first century, that we can expect tension over how those nations shape political policy and political military policy to deal with the rest of the world. The other major factor is, again, economic policy and the path Western Europe takes on markets. Will it be an open or a closed market economy, and will the countries be determined to block external competition and grow, or will they simply look at the power of that market as a source from which to draw?

Middle East and Asia. Unlike the policy concerns in the Soviet Union and Europe, it is not economic progress but regional conflicts and arms issues that will still be at the top of the U.S. agenda for the Middle East and South Asia in the twenty-first century. The Middle East has become a key spot for introduction of new arms; I do not see that slowing. I do not see any signs that the fundamentalism of the Islamic movement has run its course despite the absence of the Ayatollah Khomeini, so we can expect continued terrorist activity to fuel the conflict in the Middle East.

In East Asia the next decade will not likely see stable Chinese leadership to deal with political and economic problems—the resolution of issues brought out at Tienanmien Square, Hong Kong's shift of political control (1996), and so on.

Developments in the United States

I would like to briefly underscore several areas to watch here at home in the twenty-first century.

National Security with a Limited Budget. One of my main concerns, as we look toward the next century, is that we will not have the base structure that has been the key to our national security policy for the past four decades. The essential question is, in a declining-budget environment, how do we deal with the large expense of totally rethinking both the size and the deployment of defense forces to maintain a force structure for a variety of challenges in the twenty-first century? If we cannot count on the base facilities we have had in the past—in Spain or Greece or Turkey, or the Philippines, or Korea, for example, we have a very large problem before us.

North America Marketplace. An area of growth, in my view, is the U.S.-Canada free trade agreement and the possibility of adding Mexico to that agreement by the twenty-first century. My conviction is that a North American marketplace is dominantly the world's largest marketplace notwithstanding what will happen in Europe. We have the market potential to attract Japan and Europe as well. My point is that there is a need for a vibrant, strong economy from which this Nation can lead, and not because it is exclusively our superpower status militarily that in the past caused us to have the right to lead.

Technology. Although we have initiated much of the evolving technology of the past, increasingly we are not the ones who use it in commercial products. Foreign policy will feel the impact if we cannot control export of this technology and if we fail to exercise effective diplomacy through advanced technology—through computers, broadcasting satellites, and the like.

> *It is the economics, I believe, that will increasingly become a driving force determining how we deal with other countries.*

Investment and Education. Clearly there needs to be significant effort to focus on manufacturing, even as we build service industries, and to improve the quality of the goods and services produced. We must do much more to insure the availability of a skilled and motivated work force. My worry is, what is the mechanism for funding that kind of investment? How do we provide job skills for those employed in new automated facilities, where we must emphasize quality and productivity? We have learned how to use computer-aided instruction to improve the declining literacy rate in the United States. And we have seen substantial success in places where it has been applied. We need to focus on the education needs of developing countries as well as our own. I have some difficulty, however, in seeing how we marshal a multinational effort to deal with that problem, as opposed to trying to focus on a purely U.S. effort. I think, for a lot of reasons, it is desirable to attack literacy needs on a multinational and not a unilateral U.S. level.

What Lies Ahead: Some Concerns

With all these challenges before the Nation, I worry about the ability of the committee structure of Congress to deal with the issues. There is a pressing need to think broadly about our international activities—diplomacy and foreign aid and arms control, the size and deployment of defense forces, international economics. It is the economics, I believe, that will increasingly become a driving force determining how we deal with other countries.

continued

FOREIGN POLICY CONCERNS continued

I wonder if it is feasible to move to two-year budgets or three-year budgets in which adjustments are made in evaluating economic performance every few years rather than annually. I think if it were feasible it would go a long way toward shifting the debate between the executive and the legislative branches from line items in this year's budget to an ability to talk about priorities and the impact of programs over several years.

In my brief discussion of some of the challenges before the Congress and the Nation that will affect our future national security policy, I hope I have conveyed some of my fundamental concerns. In the twenty-first century we must raise public awareness about the need to:

- Build a strong, vibrant economy with an emphasis on the increasing importance of trade.
- Find ways to ensure a supply of capital for investment, the quality of workforce, innovation, and protection of intellectual property.
- Invest in education and technology.
- Maintain a strong NATO alliance structure that can contribute to greater global stability.
- Develop a force structure—regardless of size or deployment—that is capable of fulfilling roles and missions.
- Rely to a greater extent on diplomacy and international collaboration to confront some of the issues that warrant global effort.
- Be prepared and flexible enough to deal with unexpected events, such as changes in Poland and East Germany and keep our perspective even if all our scenarios do not succeed. ◆

On Some Regional Dilemmas in the Next Century

"In **Japan** we are beginning to see signs of a disappearance of loyalty, a labor-shortage environment, a younger generation of political leaders who are more nationalistic, more arrogant about their economic power, less inclined to compromise their national security policies."

"I have two concerns in **South America**: one is economic, the other is environmental. If we cannot find a way to reduce the debt to allow for economic growth, we are going to find significantly more hostility toward U.S. interests as the gap grows larger between rich and poor."

"**Africa**, particularly Africa south of the Sahara, will have one of the most desperate economic situations in the twenty-first century."

"I will be very surprised if we have a U.S. presence in **Korea**. That nation could well be busily at work trying to establish a variety of relationships with the other major players."

Admiral Bobby Inman

On the Future in General

"We have here an interesting convergence as between the Soviet Union and the Communist world on the one hand and the United States on the other. In the Soviet world the principles of socialism have continued to be affirmed at a time when circumstances are making recourse to the market ever more inevitable. And here in the United States we have had a paean of praise for free enterprise at a time when increased social need and compassionate effort are ever more urgent. Both systems have been caught in the greatest of modern political conflicts, that between established and anciently celebrated theory and modern hard reality."

"In the years ahead foreign policy will diminish as a public and congressional preoccupation. Our transition from being the world's greatest creditor to being its greatest debtor has already made presidential oratory a substitute for action. We are passing from a foreign policy of dominance to one of persuasion and negotiation. Responsibility for the latter will lie with the executive branch. The large actions of a lender and a donor were reflected through, and gave power to, the Congress. The tedious processes of persuading the Japanese, the Germans, or other countries will not be."

John Kenneth Galbraith

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Monthly abbreviations are: S, O, N, D, Ja, F, Mr, Ap, My, Je. A reference of S5 means September issue, page 5. PROFILES pages are indexed, and so, also are the individual items in them. A PROFILES (P) item on drug use in the November issue, page 18 would be indexed DRUGS: Use (P), N18, OPINION pages (O) are indexed and so are the items in them.

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October	**Germany**	**March**	**Education and Employment**
November	**The Developing World**	**April**	**World Product and Trade**
December	**U.S. and World Population**	**May**	**Federal Budget Priorities**
January	**U.S. and World Energy**	**June**	**U.S. and World Food**

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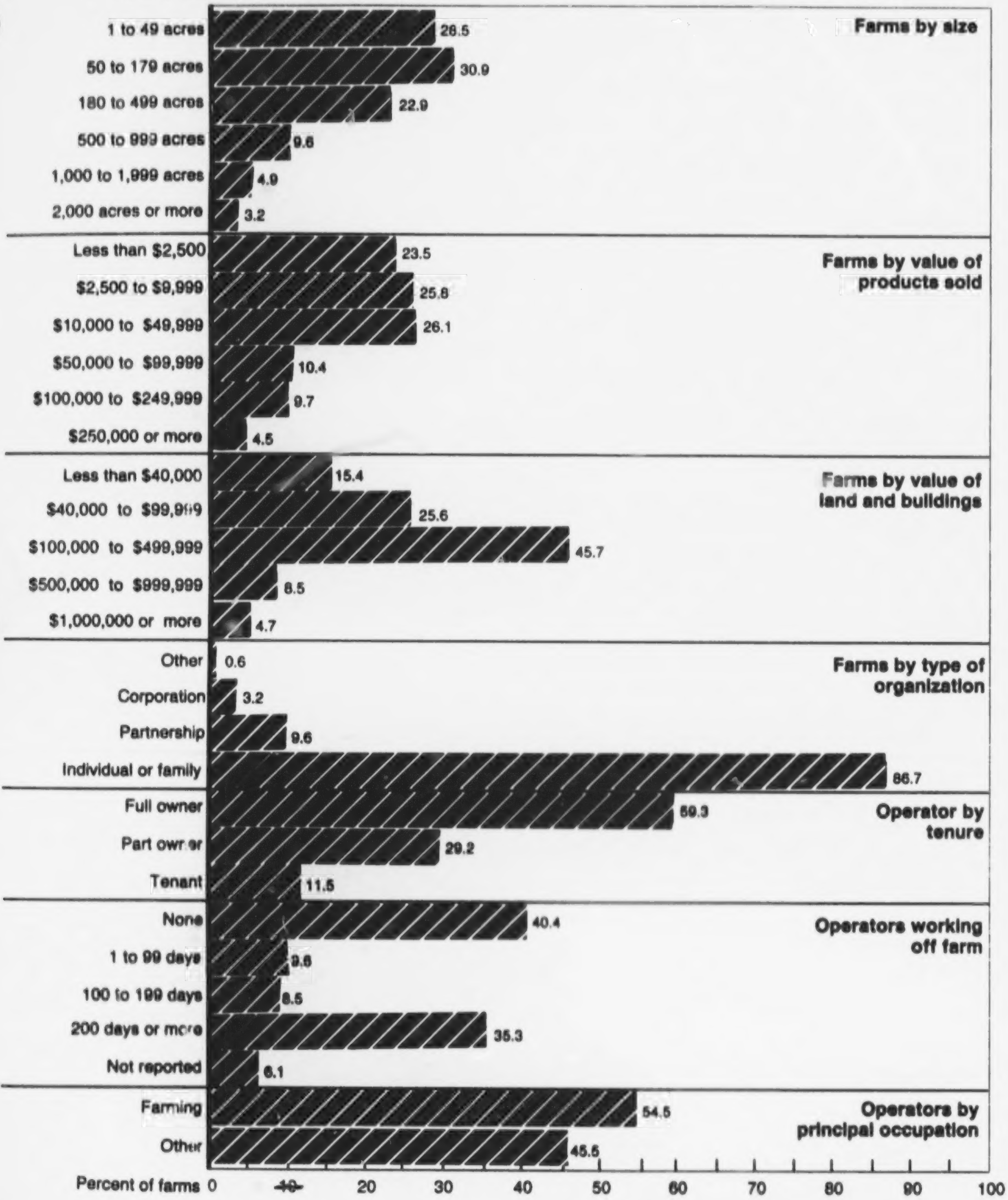
PROFILE OF THE NATION'S AGRICULTURE: 1987



Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. 1987 Census of Agriculture AC87-A-51, Volume 1 Geographic Area Series, Part 51 United States: Summary and State Data. P.3.

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THE AGRICULTURAL INDUSTRY OF THE U.S.

Agriculture is the Nation's biggest industry. Farm assets totaled $709 billion on December 31, 1987. And the Nation's food and fiber system accounted for 16.6 percent of the total gross national product in 1986.

Agriculture is also the Nation's largest employer. About 21 million people work in some phase of agriculture--from growing food and fiber to selling it at the supermarket. Farming itself employs roughly 2.1 million workers, as many as the combined work forces of transportation, the steel industry, and the automobile industry.

The Nation's agricultural production is conducted by 2.18 million farms.

Recent tabulations show that in 1987:

- 1,350,000 farms (63.5% of all farms) sold less than $19,999 worth of farm products per farm.
- 209,000 (9.6 percent) sold farm products worth $20,000 to $39,000.
- 286,000 (13.2 percent) sold farm products worth $40,000 to $99,999.
- 301,000 (13.8 percent sold farm products worth more than $100,000. Of these farms, 201,000 had sales totaling $100,000 to $249,999; 71,000 had sales of $250,000 to $499,999; and 29,000 had sales of $500,000 and over.

Agriculture requires the services of about 18.9 million people to store, transport, process, and merchandise the output of the Nation's farms.

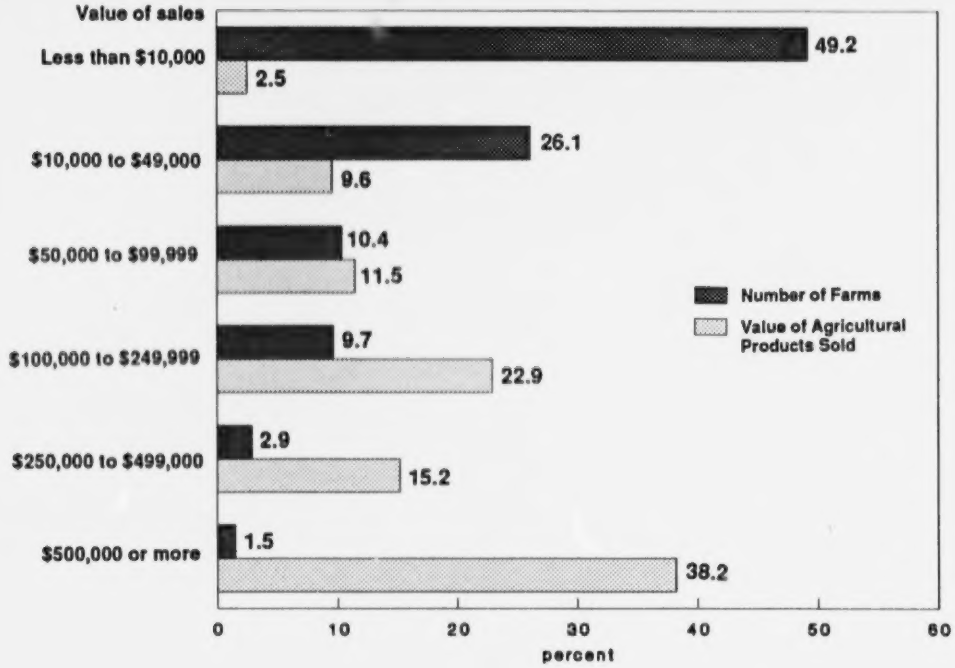
Here are a few examples of where these people work:

- Meat and poultry industry, including meatpacking, prepared meats, and poultry dressing plants, employs about 372,000 people, and has a payroll of $4.7 billion.
- Dairy industry, including manufacturers of such products as fluid milk, concentrated and dried milk, cheese, butter, and ice cream, employs nearly 163,000 people, and has a payroll of $1.9 billion.
- Baking industry, including plants for making bread, biscuits, and crackers, employs over 210,000 people, and has a payroll of $2.6 billion.
- Canned, cured, and frozen food plants employ nearly 238,000 people and have payrolls of $3.2 billion.
- Cotton mills and finishing plants employ nearly 102,000 people and have payrolls of $1.4 billion.

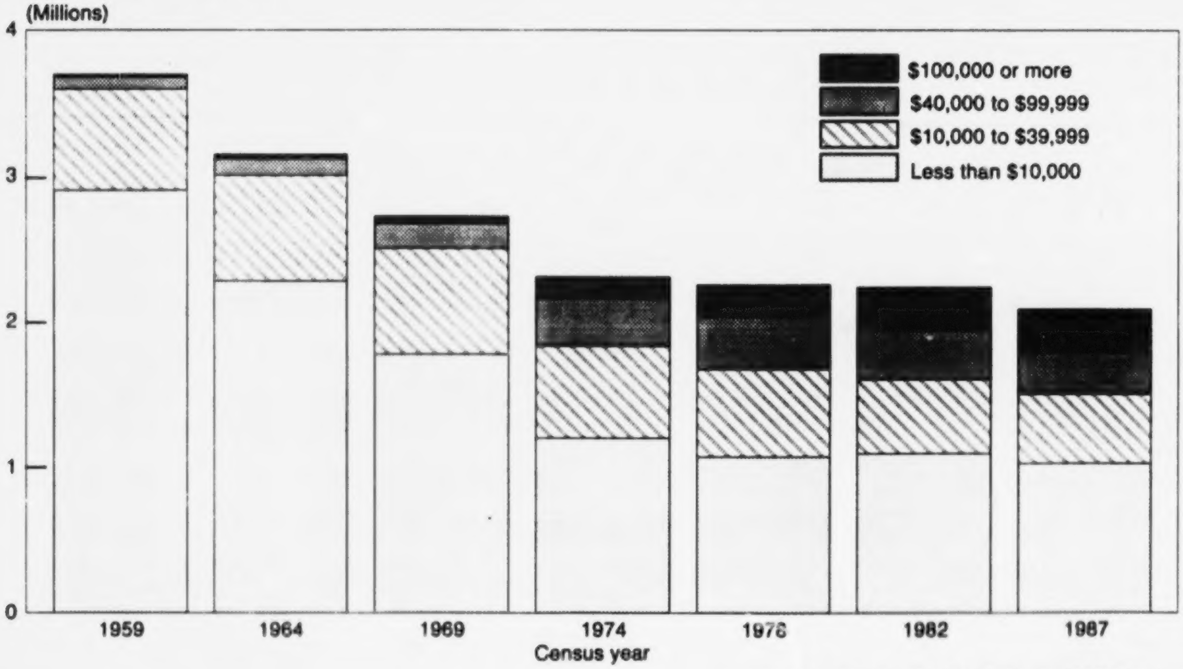
This adds up to approximately 17 percent of all jobs in private enterprise.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Miscellaneous Publication Number 1063. Revised August 1989 (received February 28, 1990). 1989 Fact Book of Agriculture. P. 1.

PERCENT OF FARMS AND OF VALUE OF PRODUCTS SOLD: 1987



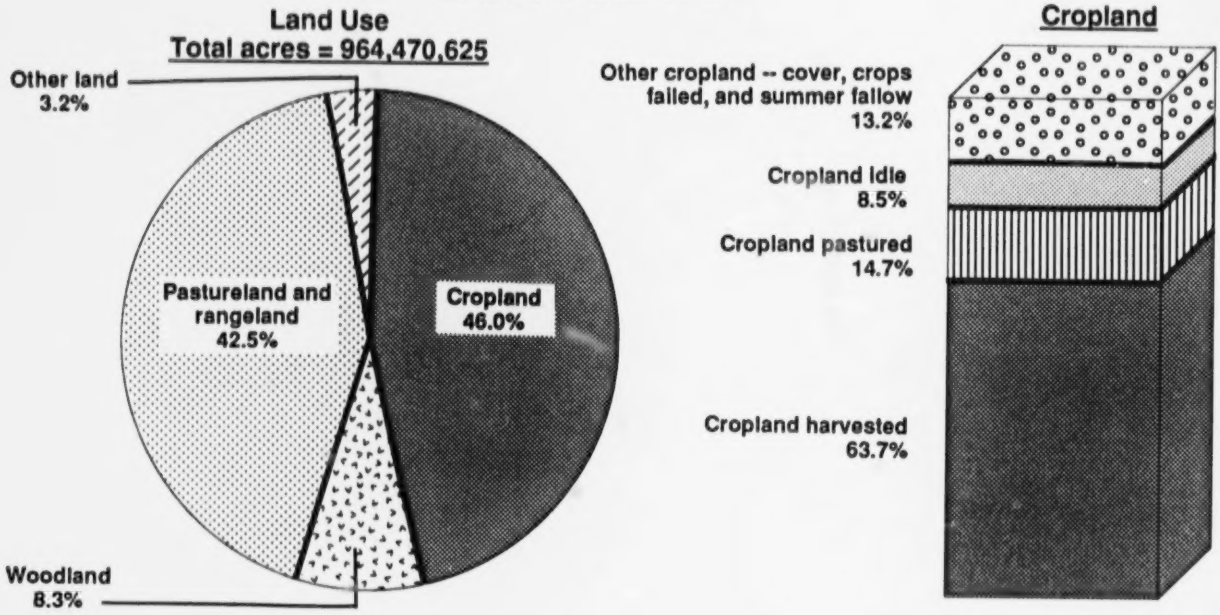
FARMS BY VALUE OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS SOLD: 1959 TO 1987



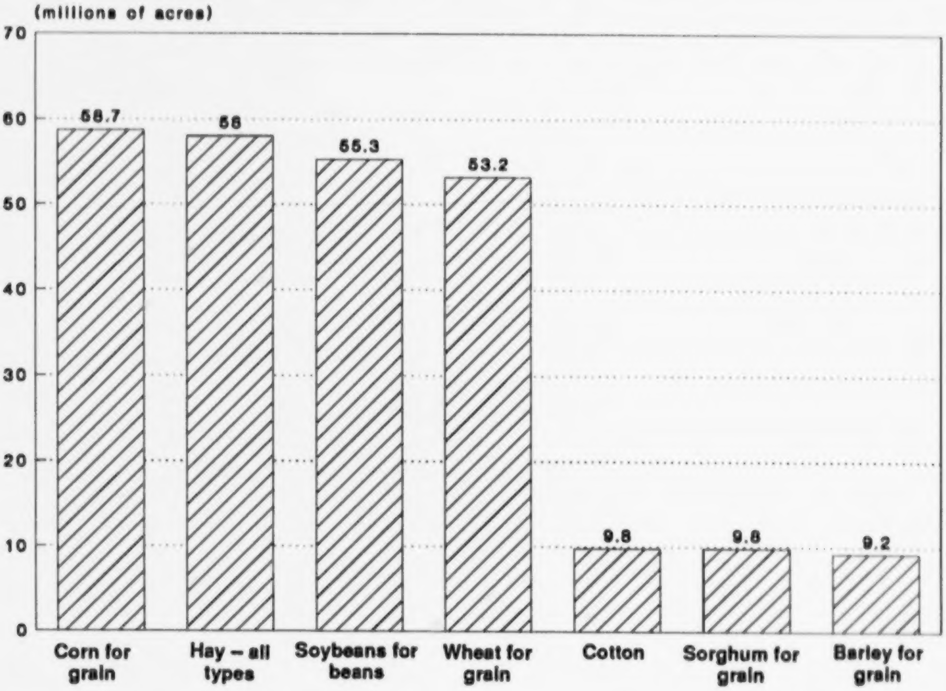
Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. 1987 Census of Agriculture AC87-A-51, Volume 1 Geographic Area Series, Part 51 United States: Summary and State Data. P.4.

continued

LAND USE: 1987



SELECTED CROPS HARVESTED: 1987



Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. 1987 Census of Agriculture AC87-A-51, Volume 1 Geographic Area Series, Part 51 United States: Summary and State Data. P.5.

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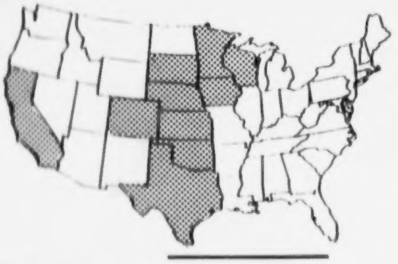
TOP FARM PRODUCING STATES IN 1988

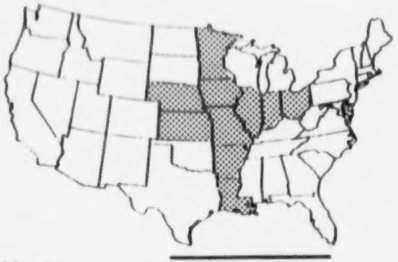
(All figures in millions of $)

Cattle and calves



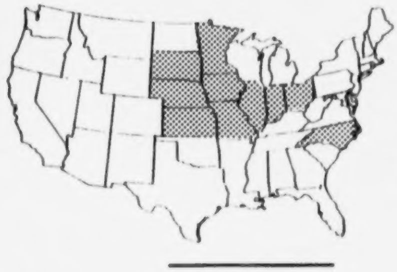
TX	$4,936
NE	$4,412
KS	$3,805
CO	$2,275
IA	$2,007
OK	$1,799
CA	$1,614
SD	$1,361
MN	$957
WI	$851
U.S. Total	$36,290

Soybeans



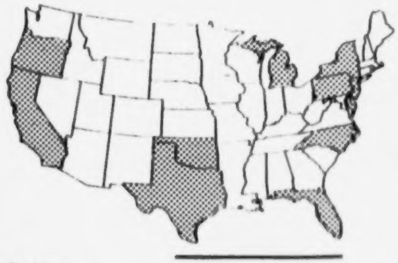
IA	$2,121
IL	$1,983
MN	$1,145
IN	$1,024
MO	$912
OH	$872
NE	$552
AR	$550
KS	$376
LA	$365
U.S. Total	$12,398

Hogs



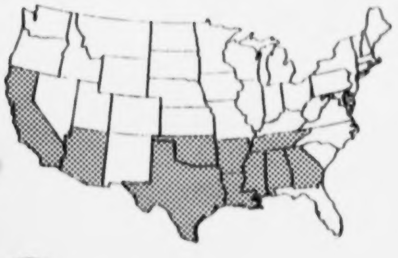
IA	$2,416
IL	$1,024
MN	$750
IN	$717
NE	$670
MO	$510
NC	$444
OH	$377
SD	$311
KS	$260
U.S. Total	$9,214

Greenhouse/Nursery



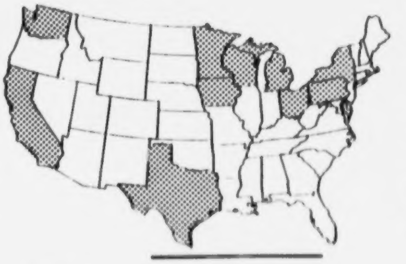
CA	$1,576
FL	$948
TX	$514
PA	$283
OR	$250
NY	$224
NJ	$221
NC	$215
MI	$212
OK	$206
U.S. Total	$6,938

Cotton



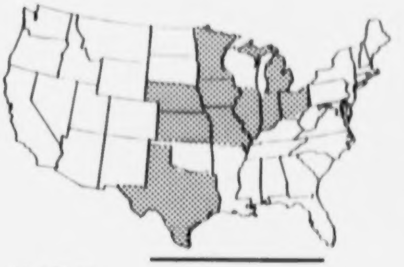
TX	$1,400
CA	$994
MS	$540
AZ	$378
LA	$322
AR	$305
TN	$177
AL	$120
GA	$112
OK	$100
U.S. Total	$4,668

Dairy Products



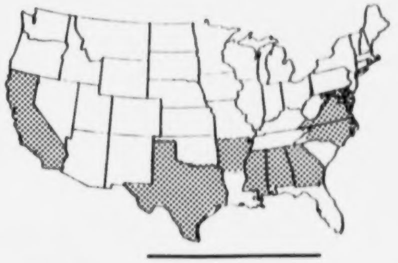
WI	$2,998
CA	$2,081
NY	$1,393
PA	$1,344
MN	$1,194
TX	$643
MI	$641
OH	$579
WA	$493
IA	$430
U.S. Total	$17,668

Corn



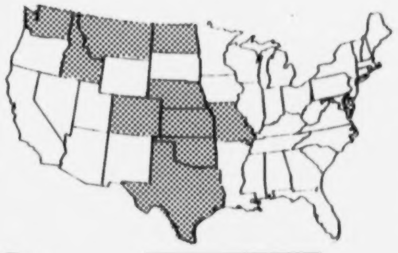
IL	$1,798
IA	$1,734
NE	$1,396
IN	$974
MN	$761
OH	$548
MO	$316
TX	$311
KS	$282
MI	$267
U.S. Total	$10,132

Broilers



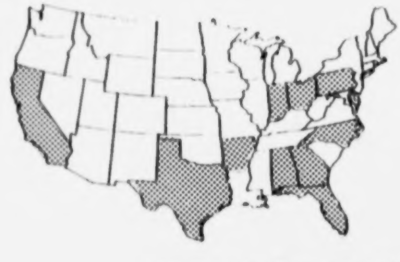
AR	$1,250
GA	$1,071
AL	$936
NC	$713
MS	$503
DE	$397
MD	$396
TX	$391
CA	$339
VA	$265
U.S. Total	$7,431

Wheat



KS	$1,056
ND	$666
OK	$529
WA	$435
MT	$325
TX	$288
CO	$261
ID	$261
NE	$233
MO	$218
U.S. Total	$6,433

Eggs



CA	$298
GA	$230
AR	$227
IN	$204
NC	$190
PA	$186
TX	$182
AL	$143
OH	$139
FL	$94
U.S. Total	$3,059

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Farmline, December 1989-January 1990. P. 23.

THE U.S. GOVERNMENT'S ROLE IN AGRICULTURE

The following is reprinted from the U.S. Department of Agriculture's National Food Review, January-March 1990. P.1. In the original, the first paragraph was the last, just before *For further reading*.

Congress is now considering legislation to replace the soon-to-expire Food Security Act of 1985. This issue of *National Food Review* is designed to help the public understand farm commodity programs. The articles—covering all program commodities—discuss the history of the programs, current provisions, and their effects.

For the last half-century, U.S. agriculture has been among the most productive in the world. Not only has it made possible a high-quality and low-cost diet for a growing population at home, but it has, from its abundant exports, fed millions abroad. Although U.S. agriculture has been immensely successful, American farmers have not always prospered to the same degree. The reason for this disparity lies in agriculture's unique characteristics:

- Agricultural commodities are homogeneous products. For example, wheat of the same type and grade—whether it is produced in Kansas or Texas—is used to make flour. Manufacturers regard price as the main determinant of their wheat purchases.
- Commodities are produced on a large number of farms, each accounting for a small part of total output. No individual farmer can influence prices by limiting supplies to the market.
- Most of the time, the productive capacity of U.S. agriculture exceeds the demands of domestic and foreign markets by a wide margin.

Because of these characteristics, individual producers cannot influence market forces. Prices can be low and quite variable, depending on the level of output. Higher production usually translates into lower prices for most commodities. At such times, incomes of most farmers are bolstered by commodity programs designed to even out the large swings in prices. Widespread Federal involvement in farm commodity programs began during the Great Depression. After the stock market crash in October 1929, farm prices dropped even further from their depressed levels of the 1920's. In 1933, farm income per person was less than a quarter of nonfarm income. Congress responded to the crisis, at the behest of President Franklin Roosevelt, by passing the Agricultural Adjustment Act of 1933. The goals of the 1933 Act were to raise farm prices, thus improving income, and bring supply in line with demand. Only the Government had the power to do this.

At times, prices have been high enough to bring sufficient return to farmers with little Federal assistance. The early 1970's was such a period. Growing world demand caused an explosion in agricultural exports, dramatically reducing the importance of commodity programs to farmers' incomes. Economic conditions, however, changed in the early 1980's. World demand stagnated, production soared, and prices for major commodities plunged. A rising dollar and highly competitive world markets cut the U.S. share of exports for many agricultural commodities. Agricultural surpluses mounted, despite efforts to reduce them. Many producers experienced financial stress.

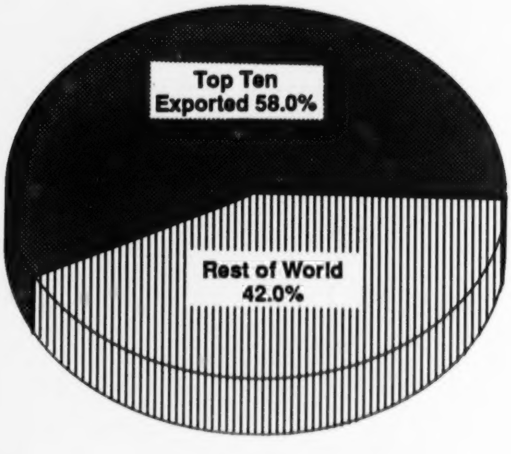
The Food Security Act of 1985—the latest major farm legislation—addressed many of these problems. The goals of Government involvement in agriculture remain the same. According to a 1985 report by the Senate Committee on Agriculture, Nutrition, and Forestry: "The essential purpose of successful farm policy is to provide for a measure of stability in the agricultural sector, thereby increasing the opportunity for farmers to derive fair and reasonable profits in the marketplace. The aim of Federal farm policy is to induce elements of predictability into the inherently unpredictable business of farming."

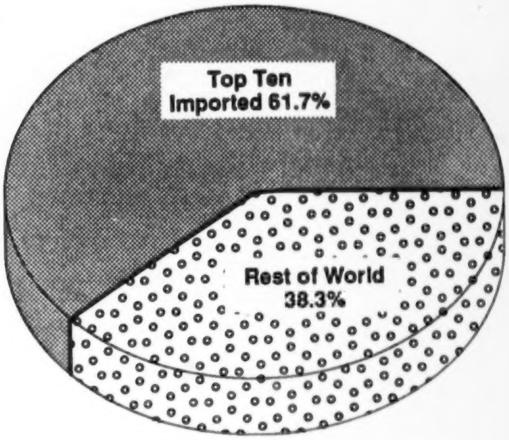
For further reading: A history of commodity programs can be found in *History of Agricultural Price Support and Adjustment Programs, 1933-84*, AIB-485, by Douglas E. Bowers, et al., ERS, USDA, December 1984. A Congressional perspective on farm commodity programs can be found in *Food Security Act of 1985, Report of the Committee on Agriculture to Accompany H.R. 2100*, House Report 99-271, Part 1, U.S. Congress, September 13, 1985; and *Agriculture, Food, Trade, and Conservation Act of 1985, Report of the Committee on Agriculture, Nutrition, and Forestry to Accompany S. 1714*, Senate Report 99-145, U.S. Congress, September 30, 1985. The *Agricultural-Food Policy Review: U.S. Agricultural Policies in a Changing World*, AER-620, ERS, USDA, November 1989, contains a wide-ranging economic discussion of commodity programs.

IN 1988, THE U.S. WAS THE WORLD'S TOP EXPORTER OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS -- AND THE THIRD RANKED IMPORTER

Leading exporters	Value of farm products	Leading importers	Value of farm products
	$ billions		$ billions
World Total	**287.2**	**World Total**	**313.5**
United States	40.3	West Germany	31.3
France	27.2	Japan	26.8
Netherlands	25.0	United States	22.6
West Germany	16.9	Italy	20.9
Australia	10.4	United Kingdom	20.3
United Kingdom	10.3	France	19.4
Brazil	9.5	Soviet Union	17.9
Belgium-Luxembourg	9.3	Netherlands	17.1
Canada	8.9	Belgium-Luxembourg	10.9
Italy	8.8	Spain	6.3
China	8.5	Canada	6.0
Denmark	6.9	Hong Kong	5.7
Spain	6.7	South Korea	5.3
Cuba	5.5	Switzerland	4.2

Data for calendar year 1988, provided by Economic Research Service economist Art Mackie from statistics published by the Food and Agriculture Organization, United Nations.





World Eagle charts. Table from U.S. Department of Agriculture, Farmline, February 1990. P. 14.

DECREASED COMMODITY PRICES IN AFRICAN COUNTRIES HAVE MEANT LESS EXPORT EARNINGS WITH WHICH TO PAY THEIR DEBTS AND WITH WHICH TO IMPORT OUR EXPORTS, AND THOSE OF OTHERS

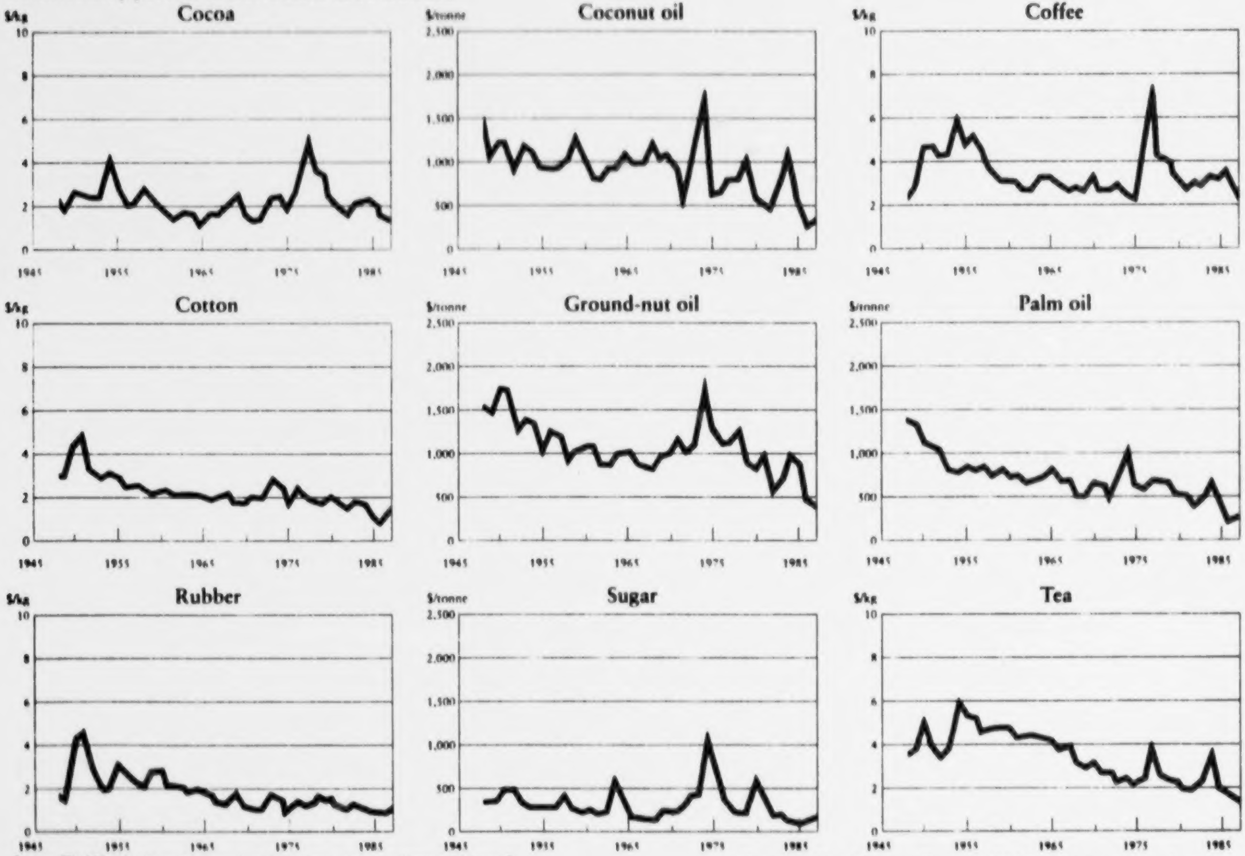
Many African countries depend on just a few agricultural commodities for the majority of their export earnings. Consequently, fluctuations in the prices of these commodities have a profound impact on the economies of these countries.

While prices for some major commodities have been rising recently (see table at right), when the prices are adjusted to account for inflation and currency devaluations, commodities are actually earning less in real-money terms than they did a few decades ago (see graphs below).

Commodity prices	Dec. 1, 1988	Dec. 1, 1989
Cocoa	$2.27/kg	$1.13/kg
Coconut oil	$550/tonne	$495/tonne
Coffee	$2.45/kg	$1.58/kg
Cotton	$1.18/kg	$1.40/kg
Ground-nut oil	$694/tonne*	$904/tonne*
Palm oil	$440/tonne	$341/tonne
Rubber	$1.16/kg	$1.00/kg
Sugar	$256/tonne	$328/tonne
Tea (average, London)	$1.66/kg**	$2.42/kg**

All prices are in US dollars. Sources: *The Wall Street Journal, The Financial Times*
*Prices on June 1, 1988/June 1, 1989 **Price at nearest weekly auction

Commodity prices in constant 1985 dollars



Source: World Bank, "Price Prospects for Major Primary Commodities, 1988-2000."

Source: The Hunger Project. African Farmer, Number 2: December 1989. P. 55. Reprinted with permission.

GLEANINGS FROM SPEECHES AT THE U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE'S 66TH ANNUAL AGRICULTURAL OUTLOOK CONFERENCE

"**WORLD COMMODITY PRODUCTION** is increasing in 1989/90. Crops are recovering from drought-reduced levels in the United States, Canada, and Argentina. Animal product output will reach a new record as poultry supplies continue to increase. World commodity consumption is moving to record levels and will exceed production for most crops. Use will respond to: real economic growth of 3 to 3.5 percent, meat output 1 percent larger and population up 1.7 percent . . . .

"U.S. grain exports will be down slightly because of a rebound in crops and exports by Canada and Argentina, near-record exports by the European Community, and tighter U.S. food grain supplies.

"U.S. soybean exports will face record South American production . . . . Early indications point to a record low U.S. share of the world market. In contrast to grains and soybeans, the U.S. share of the world cotton market is expected to recover from last season's reduced level. Competition is easing in international markets as cotton supplies decline in foreign exporting countries . . . .

"In 1990, the outlook is for slightly higher receipts [by U.S. farms], while expenses may stabilize. Marketing receipts will move up in response to bigger crops and higher prices for some commodities, while gross income may be up less than cash receipts because of lower government payments. Production expenses may stabilize, mainly because of lower feed costs. This would suggest net cash income of $52 billion to $57 billion, up 2 to 4 percent from 1989 . . . . Net farm income of $46 billion to $49 billion would be 2 to 5 percent below 1989's record $48-$50 billion. Net farm income takes into account an expected smaller increase next year in the value of commodity inventories." *James R. Donald, chairperson, World Agricultural Outlook Board.*

"**THERE ARE TWO ISSUES EMERGING** that could have a lot to do with the future timber supply-demand situation in the United States—recycling and global warming.

"Landfill space in the Northeast will likely be gone in 10 years . . . . There are technical problems with recycling some papers such as printouts from laser printers. In our projections we assume recycling will increase some, but there is potential for mandated recycling that would substitute [material] directly for wood used in the pulp industry. A plus for timber supply, but a challenge for the pulp industry.

"The consequences of global warming could go several ways . . . . All we know for sure is that the concentration of carbon dioxide in the air is increasing. If unchecked, this could lead to global warming. Beyond that we are in uncharted territory. If the warming is with adequate moisture, for example, it may be a plus for tree growth; if not, a negative. Planting trees may be the answer to global warming, but it would take a lot of trees to make a difference. A plus for timber supply, but a negative for landowners trying to grow wood for profit." *David R. Darr, Division of Forest Inventory, Economics and Recreation Research, USDA Forest Service.*

"**THE MAJOR THREAT** to U.S. competitiveness in world markets in the next decade is potential legislation to arbitrarily limit or eliminate agricultural chemical use in crop production. Such legislation would increase the cost of food and eliminate our participation in world markets. Safe food, safe water and a preserved environment are not incompatible with efficient agricultural production so long as decisions are made in the laboratory, based upon scientific evidence and not on 'Good Morning America.' This requires that we in agriculture need to be out front with positive, effective policies that solve contamination problems and [that we] not avoid environmental issues. We need to help set the agenda, rather than react defensively." *William Lapp, economic analyst, ConAgra, Inc.*

"**THE ECONOMICS OF DEVELOPING** products from the new industrial crops is almost a Catch 22 situation. Farmers aren't likely to produce a new crop without an assured market, and industry isn't likely to retool for processing an alternative crop without an assured supply . . . .

"Particularly in the developing stages of new technology, costs tend to be much higher for each unit of production than in more mature technologies. On their own merits, therefore, many new products cannot compete in the marketplace, at least initially. How can startup costs be minimized?

"Frequently, the total benefit to the overall economy is not figured into the equation. For example, calcium magnesium acetate is an effective substitute for road salt, but its cost is considerably higher . . . . Yet how much does it save taxpayers in reduced repairs to roads and bridges? How much does it save car owners in reduced rust damage? How much does it benefit water quality and natural ecosystems that now receive salt-laden runoff?

"The classical approach to marketing is to look for a need, and then to fill it. Another approach is to develop a new product, and then to look for uses . . . . The best known example of a new technology developed first—and then new uses found—is the laser. More to our point today is another example: Super slurper, which was created in the Agricultural Research Service research center at Peoria and then languished on the shelf for

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Farmline, February 1990. P. 16.

continued

GLEANINGS FROM AG OUTLOOK CONFERENCE continued

years. This product was originally called *starch polyacrylonitrile graft copolymer*, so there is little wonder that people weren't too excited about it. Then an ARS employee coined the term *super slurper*—a highly descriptive, imaginative name for the product—and industry took a second look. The result has been the development of several innovative, useful products." *R. Dean Plowman, administrator, Agricultural Research Service, USDA.*

"**INDUSTRY HAS ASSUMED** a strong role in addressing the concerns of groundwater contamination. When speaking of industry, I include not only those who manufacture and distribute fertilizers and chemicals, but also production agriculture and all segments of society which utilize various products for the convenience and enhancement of mankind.

"Today, industry is providing substantial leadership and investment to assure that the appropriate safeguards are in place. Industry is making significant investment individually and cooperatively through various organizations to develop guidelines for the safe, efficient utilization of fertilizer and the many agrichemicals in use today. This is not a reactive response, but is indicative of the willingness of industry to be proactive in their attitudes. We have progressed beyond the point of suggesting that problems do not exist. I hope we have progressed beyond the point of acrimony between various segments of the industry and society. In short, the time for finger-pointing is past, and the time for constructive discussion and debate is here. Environmental stewardship is not solely a government problem; however, government has a significant role in data base production, education and in assuring uniformity in regulatory response. We must all work together." *James B. Boillot, executive vice president and chief executive officer, National Fertilizer Solutions Association.*

"**IF COUNTRIES FAIL** to take advantage of the opportunity provided by the Uruguay round [of trade negotiations under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade] to reform agricultural policies, there are a number of likely consequences for agricultural exporting countries . . . . and for the world economy in general. First, since there is a low probability of most countries initiating policy reforms unilaterally—despite the economic gains—it follows that agricultural protection, especially in major developed countries, would continue with consequent adverse effects on world income.

"Second, there could be an increasing proliferation of bilateral trade agreements, trading blocs, or both. If internationalist sentiments did not prevail in these trading blocs, the fragmentation of the international trading system would increase.

"Third, there might well be a continuance of the confrontationist policies pursued by the United States and other subsidizing exporters, which contributed to the sharp downward spiral in world market prices for agricultural commodities—especially wheat—in the mid-1980's, and which are adversely affected not only by the major protagonists (the United States and the European Community) but also other trading nations such as Australia and Argentina." *Brian Fisher, director, Australian Bureau of Agriculture and Resource Economics.*

"**POLITICIANS DON'T LIKE TO ACT**—particularly if their actions can lose votes for them. So they need a crisis to move policy forward. This theory of crisis management relates in particular to agriculture, where politicians feel compelled to respond to short-term downturns in markets when facing elections . . . .

"The situation in U.S. agriculture today—in terms of both market and economic conditions—is very different from that experienced during the drafting of the 1985 farm bill. This year there is no major agricultural crisis, and therefore, there are not likely to be any radical proposals for major changes in current farm policy, with some exceptions. What is more likely is a continuation of the basic policies crafted in the 1985 Food Security Act. This doesn't mean a steady reduction on commodity loan rates and target prices, but rather 'dropping anchor' where we currently are, with some modifications such as planting flexibility . . . .

"Because Democrats hold the majority of seats in the Congress, a Republican bill from the [Bush] Administration would clearly be considered 'dead on arrival' if sent up to [Capitol] Hill. It would limit the Administration's flexibility by dampening ongoing negotiations among agencies, and would provide fixed proposals open to congressional disapproval. It is more likely that Agriculture Secretary [Clayton] Yeutter will send up to Congress the broad objectives and proposals that the Administration seeks to achieve in the legislation." *Carol Brick-Turin, World Perspectives, Incorporated.* ❖

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. Farmline, February 1990. P. 17.

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RECENT TRENDS IN DOMESTIC FOOD PROGRAMS OF THE U.S.

Table 1. Benefit Costs of USDA Food Assistance Programs Have Risen Slightly[1]

Program	1987	1988	Fiscal 1988 quarters[2]				Fiscal 1989[2]
			I	II	III	IV	I
	Million dollars						
Family food							
Food stamps	10,500	11,159	2,781	2,850	2,789	2,739	2,894
Puerto Rico[3]	856	883	221	221	221	221	228
Food distribution							
Indian reservations	49	47	12	12	11	11	12
Schools[4]	898	818	254	284	138	141	263
Other[5]	214	215	58	62	48	48	59
TEFAP[6]	846	585	189	185	142	69	47
Cash-in-lieu of commodities[7]	146	151	38	38	40	35	37
Child nutrition[8]							
School lunch	2,797	2,917	876	932	727	383	911
School breakfast	447	482	143	150	123	66	148
Child care and summer food	590	669	131	140	165	232	144
Special milk	15	19	5	5	5	4	5
WIC[9]	1,678	1,794	423	446	460	465	459
Total[10]	19,036	19,739	5,131	5,326	4,868	4,414	5,207

[1] Fiscal years, administrative costs are excluded unless noted. [2] Preliminary, quarterly data may not add to annual total due to rounding. [3] Represents appropriated amounts, includes grant for Northern Marianas. [4] Includes National School Lunch, Child Care Food, and Summer Food Service Programs, and schools receiving only commodities. [5] Commodity Supplemental Food Program, Nutrition Program for the Elderly, and donations to charitable institutions. [6] Temporary Emergency Food Assistance Program. [7] Child nutrition programs and Nutrition Program for the Elderly. [8] Cash expenditures. [9] Special Supplemental Program for Women, Infants, and Children, includes administrative costs. [10] May not add due to rounding.

Source: Monthly data from the Food and Nutrition Service.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture. National Food Review, July-September 1989. P. 40

HIGHLIGHTS OF THE BELLAGIO DECLARATION WHICH ASSERTS HALF OF ALL WORLD HUNGER CAN BE ELIMINATED BY THE YEAR 2000

The following edited release was prepared by the World Hunger Program, Brown University, in December 1989.

Half the world's hungry, who now number more than 1 billion people, can have reliable access to sufficient food by the end of the next decade, according to a new analysis of world hunger, developed by hunger analysts from 14 nations at a meeting in Bellagio, Italy, in November 1989.

The Bellagio Declaration, which was released by Bellagio Conference participants in December, offers four achievable goals for the 1990s which would cut world hunger at least in half:

. Eliminate famine deaths. Worldwide, 15 to 30 million people are at risk of death by famine. Many of the tools needed to eliminate famine deaths exist already--early warning techniques, better-organized relief strategies, effective combinations of short- and long-term assistance. The destruction or interdiction of civilian food supplies in areas of armed conflict – using famine as a weapon of war – remains the major obstacle to eliminating famine deaths.

. End hunger in half of the poorest households. Roughly 450 million people live in rural households where environmental degradation, economic deprivation or restriction to agriculturally marginal land has made them unable to raise or buy enough to eat. Programs which provide wages or food in exchange for labor to restore degraded lands provide both short- and long-tern relief. Carefully designed food-security programs, rather than indiscriminate food-assistance, could end hunger for the poorest urban victims without damaging existing marketing networks.

. Reduce malnutrition among women and children by half. Women of reproductive age and children under five years of age are particularly vulnerable to malnutrition. While they would benefit from successful efforts to end famine death and cut hunger in poor households, their special problems – wasting and stunting of children, nutritional anemia in young women – require special measures. Sustained breastfeeding, careful monitoring of growth, supplemental feedings and improved control of childhood illnesses, coupled with iron supplements for women of reproductive age, could help achieve this goal.

. Eliminate iodine and vitamin A deficiencies. More than 280 million of the world's children are at risk for vitamin A deficiency and its associated visual disorders. More than 190 million cases of goiter occur because of iodine deficiency. Current techniques can eradicate both problems. Measures as simple as providing iodized salt, or, in the case of vitamin A deficiency, a capsule taken two or three times a year by children under four years, could accomplish this goal today.

Although many tools for combatting world hunger have been available, the 1980s -- now described as "the lost '80s" -- brought a slowdown in the world's efforts to eradicate hunger and a growing realization that most development efforts have failed for the poor and hungry in the Third World. The 1980s also brought some hard-won lessons about emergency food aid, some progress against childhood and nutritional diseases, and a maturation of grassroots movements and development groups.

The 1990s will bring another billion people to feed, most of them in countries already struggling with hunger. But the 1990s also promise new opportunities, including a lessening of East-West tensions, the likelihood of reduced spending on weaponry worldwide, and the prospect of more attention and economic resources devoted to peaceful, humanitarian ends. For the first time in human history, *The Bellagio Declaration* says, the end of famine is achievable. A focused attack on the four elements of world hunger covered by *The Bellagio Declaration's* goals can end half the world's hunger during the next decade.

The Bellagio Declaration was produced and adopted by an international group of governmental planners, world hunger scholars, opinion leaders and scientists during a meeting Nov. 13-16, 1989, at the Rockefeller Foundation Study and Conference Center in Bellagio, Italy. The group, convened by Akin Mabogunje of the Nigerian Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure, and by Robert W. Kates of the World Hunger Program at Brown University, included men and women from the United States, the Soviet Union, Japan, the United Nations, Europe, Mexico, Sri Lanka, the People's Republic of China and other countries both North and South. ❖

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PLANT TREES FOR A COOLER, CLEANER WORLD

The material on this page has been excerpted with permission from a brochure describing Global ReLeaf, a program of the American Forestry Association (founded in 1875). Copies of the brochure are available by writing to the Association at P.O. Box 2000 - Dept. WE, Washington DC 20013.

How trees improve the environment:

. Trees use carbon dioxide in the atmosphere and turn it into life-giving oxygen.

. Trees help conserve energy. Three properly-planted trees around your home can cut your air-conditioning bill by 10-50 percent, and windbreaks can considerably reduce heating costs.

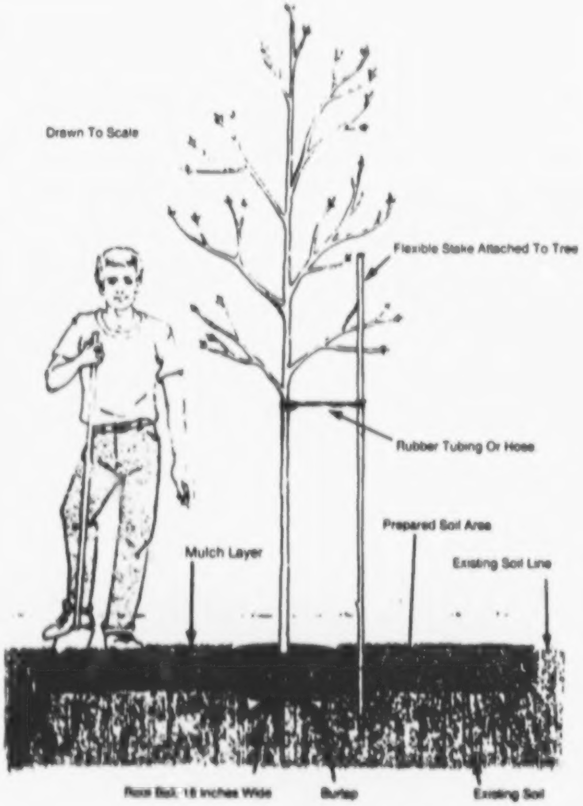
. Trees help turn urban "heat islands" into cool and comfortable "oases." Shading expanses of pavement with trees helps keep temperatures lower and dramatically reduces energy use.

. There are at least 100 million energy-efficient tree planting sites available around homes and in America's towns and cities. Planting those 100 million trees could offset carbon dioxide emissions by 33 million tons a year, saving American consumers $4 billion each year in energy costs!

. Trees and forests filter air pollution, provide wildlife habitat, protect watershed areas, prevent soil erosion, and reduce noise pollution.

. Well-managed forests produce hundreds of products we use in everyday life, as well as a variety of recreational opportunities.

. Healthy tropical forests support over 50 percent of the world's tree and plant species, produce valuable medicines, and affect the global climate.



You can make a difference.

There are three Global ReLeaf actions you can take right now that will make a difference:

1. Plant and care for your own trees. Trees around your home mean a "greener" life that is more beautiful and more energy efficient. You'll feel great doing your part for Global ReLeaf.

2. Get involved in your community and local area. Every American town or city has "missing trees" -- trees yet to be planted or trees to be replaced. There is no better way to leave your mark on the landscape than by planting energy-saving trees.

3. Support the American Forestry Association, and our national public policy effort that addresses all of the issues outlined above, including reforesting America, improving management of all lands, reducing air pollution, encouraging the enactment of carbon-dioxide-reducing legislation, and conserving energy.

How To Plant A Tree

1. Locate a clear, open site for your tree, with generous rooting area and good drainage.

2. Loosen and blend the soil in the entire planting area 6-10 inches deep. In the center, dig a hole at least as wide, but only as deep as the root ball.

3. Remove tree from burlap or container and place on solidly packed soil so that the root collar (where the tree's main stem meets the roots) is slightly above the surrounding grade.

4. Backfill hole and lightly pack the soil into place around the tree.

5. Spread a 2-3 inch layer of mulch in the entire area, keeping a 6-8 inch distance from the tree trunk.

6. Stake tree so that it can flex in the wind. Attach stake to tree using discarded rubber innertubes. Remove them after six months.

7. Water thoroughly, but do not flood the hole. Water twice a week during dry periods.

More detailed information will be provided when you become a supporter of Global ReLeaf and make your donation of $25 or more.

Thank you for making a difference.

WETLANDS:
Yesterday's Wastes, Today's Ecological Treasure Houses

For additional treatment of this topic, see World Eagle, January 1990, pages 16-19.

If you don't have a wetland in your backyard, there's probably one nearby. There's one in every county in the United States, according to the Environmental Protection Agency.

Wetlands are mostly semi-aquatic lands. They are either constantly or periodically covered or saturated with water. The presence of water makes them hydric, or capable of supporting specially adapted plants like bulrushes, cattails, and cypress.

There is a large variety of wetlands—swamps, bogs, and marshes. Most are always wet, but some, like the prairie potholes in the Midwest, are dry much of the year. There are two broad categories, coastal and inland. Coastal wetlands are linked to estuaries where sea and fresh water mix. Many shallow coastal areas are unvegetated mud or sand flats. Marshes are abundant along the Atlantic and Gulf coasts. Mangrove swamps are common in Hawaii and in southern Florida.

Inland wetlands are most common on floodplains beside rivers and streams. They are also found along the margins of lakes and ponds and in isolated depressions surrounded by dry land. Inland wetlands include marshes and wet meadows, shrub swamps, and wooded swamps. Some regional examples are the pocosins in North Carolina, prairie potholes in Minnesota and the Dakotas, and the tropical rain forests of Hawaii.

Historically, wetlands were viewed as pest-ridden wastes to be reclaimed for useful purposes. For many years no one noticed their environmental benefits or their rapid disappearance.

In 1763, George Washington formed a company to drain for agriculture the Great Dismal Swamp on the border of Virginia and North Carolina. While his project failed, his attitude toward wetlands foreshadowed policy for nearly two centuries. The swamp in question has now been made a preserve.

Wetlands in the public domain were given to states to administer under the Swamp Lands Acts of 1849, 1850, and 1860. Florida, for example, sold the Everglades and Okefenokee wetlands for less than 50 cents an acre. Today, Iowa has lost about 95 percent of its natural marshes, and California more than 90 percent of its wetlands. Other states—including Connecticut, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, and North Dakota—have lost about 50 percent of their wetlands, according to the National Wildlife Federation.

Ecologists and biologists were the first to recognize the environmental value of wetlands as some of the world's richest ecological stews. They nourish such diverse wildlife as alligators in the Florida Everglades, whooping cranes in Texas, muskrats in Iowa, and ducks in the prairie potholes in Minnesota, North Dakota, and South Dakota.

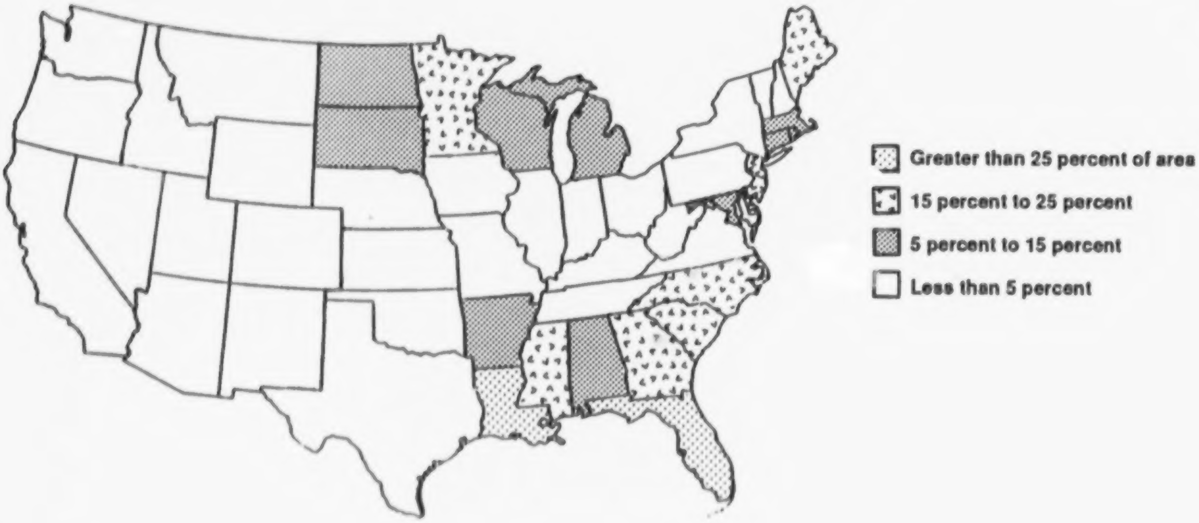
Wetlands are coveted by environmentalists and hunters alike. They not only provide a habitat for wildlife but also help maintain groundwater supplies and water quality, protect shorelines from erosion, store floodwater, and trap sediments. ◆

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Farmline, February 1990. P. 6.

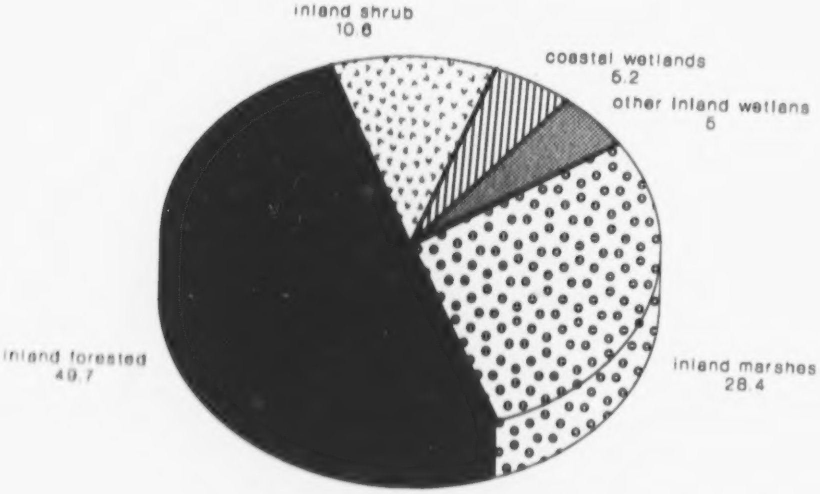
continued →

WETLANDS continued

1. Most Of The Wetlands In The Contiguous 48 Are Concentrated In 20 States


Greater than 25 percent of area
15 percent to 25 percent
5 percent to 15 percent
Less than 5 percent

2. Wetlands In The 48 Contiguous States Total About 99 Million Acres*



* 1975 Estimate

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Farmline, February 1990. Pp. 4 and 7.

River Basins of the United States: THE DELAWARE

U.S. Department of the Interior/Geological Survey.
One of a series.

The Delaware is the seventh and last in this series reprinted by World Eagle. River Basins treated earlier:
The Columbia, February 1989, pp. 20-22
The Hudson, April 1989, pp. 14-16
The Suwannee, June 1989, pp. 26-28
The Colorado, October 1989, pp. 20-22
The Potomac, December 1989, pp. 26-28
The Wabash, April 1990, pp. 24-26.

Early Exploration and Settlement

The Delaware River and bay were both discovered by Henry Hudson in 1609. The river was named South River by the Dutch colonists but was later named Delaware to honor Lord De La Warr, the first governor of the Colony of Virginia. The basin was first inhabited by the Delaware Indians (Lenni-Lenape). In 1631 Dutch colonists established the town of Zwaanendael, now Lewes, Del. The first permanent settlement, founded in 1638, was New Sweden on the site of Wilmington, Del.

Headwaters

The river has two main headwater streams, the East Branch and the West Branch; both rise in the Catskill Mountains in Schoharie, Green, and Delaware Counties, N.Y.

Mouth

The river enters the Delaware Bay between Cape May, N.J., and Cape Henlopen, Del. The approximate latitude at the mouth, officially established at Liston Point, Del., is 38°50′ N. and the approximate longitude is 75°00′ W.

Major Tributaries

The Mongaup and Neversink Rivers, N.Y.; the Lackawaxen, Lehigh, and Schuylkill Rivers, Pa.; the Maurice and Musconetcong Rivers, and the Rancocas Creek, N.J.; and the Christina River, Del., are major tributaries of the Delaware.

Course

From the western slopes of the Catskill Mountains, the East and the West Branches of the river flow southwest in a deep trough between hilly, wooded banks to form the main stem at Hancock, N.Y. Continuing south through the Kittatinny Mountains near Stroudsburg, Pa., the river passes through the Delaware Water Gap. This gorge is nearly 3 miles long, and it has steep rocky sides, some reaching to 1,400 feet, cut by the river as it forced its way through the solid rock of the mountains thousands of years ago. Near Trenton, N.J., it falls about 8 feet over a series of rock ledges and enters the tidal estuary 85 miles above Liston Point. Below Trenton it flows southwest to Wilmington, Del.; it then turns seaward and enters the Delaware Bay.

Length

The Delaware River, including the West Branch, is approximately 370 miles long from its headwaters to its mouth at Liston Point. It ranks 17th among 135 U.S. rivers that are more than 100 miles long.

Width

The river is about 700 feet wide between Easton, Pa., and Trenton, N.J. It is 3 miles wide at the mouth of the river, and it is 12 miles wide at the mouth of the basin.

Depth

The deepest point near Narrowsburg, N.Y., is 110 feet. A navigable channel is maintained as far as Trenton. It is 40 feet deep for the first 78 miles northward from Liston Point, and it is 25 feet deep for the next 5½ miles.

Rate of Flow

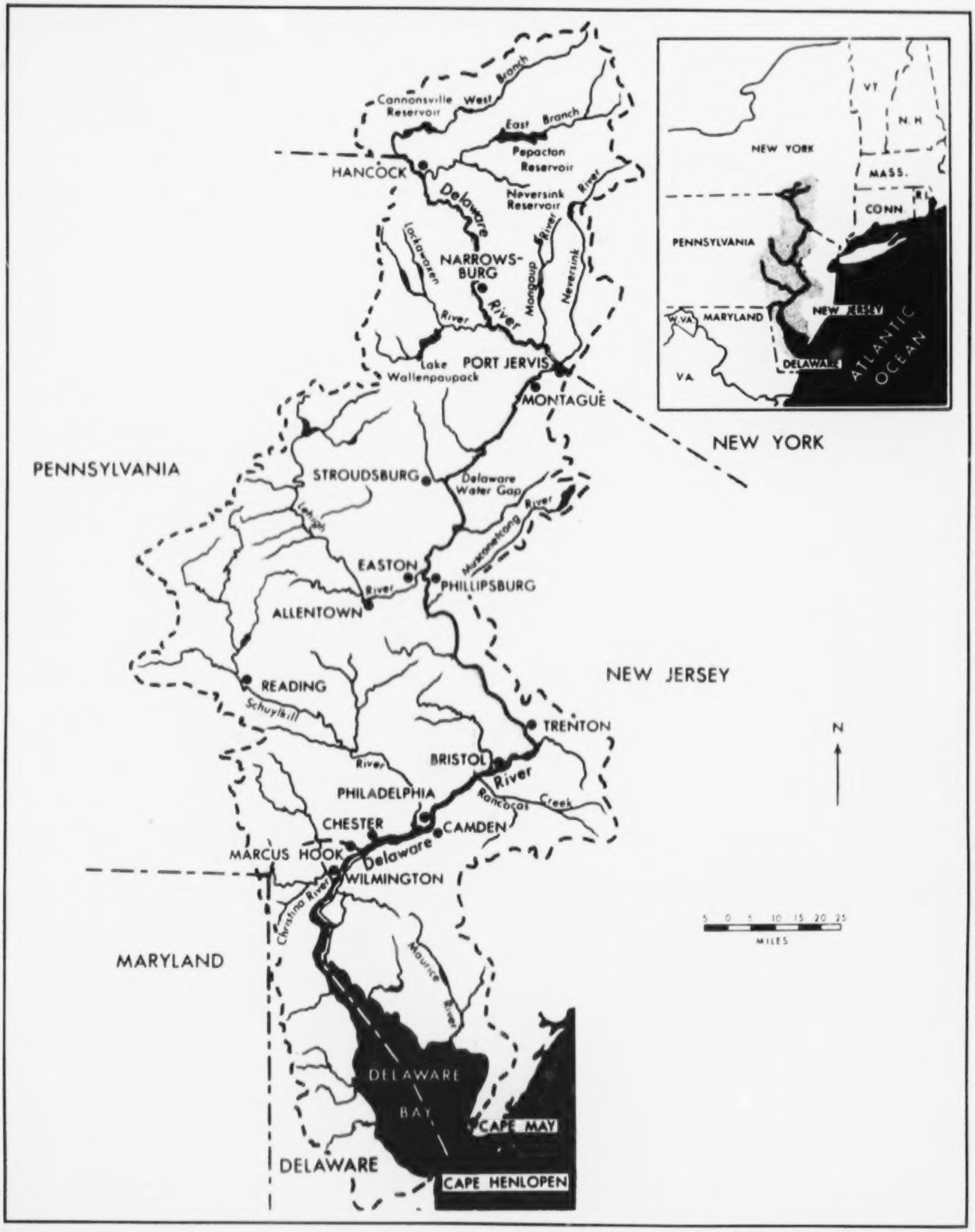
At Montague, N.J., the river's rate of flow is about 2½ million gallons per minute (gpm); at Trenton, the rate of flow is 5 million gpm.

Highest and Lowest Flows

The highest recorded flow occurred in 1955 as a result of heavy precipitation connected with Hurricane Diane; the lowest flows occurred in 1915, 1932, and 1965.

continued

THE DELAWARE RIVER BASIN continued



Cannonsville Reservoir
West Branch
East Branch
Pepacton Reservoir
HANCOCK
Delaware
Neversink Reservoir
River
Lackawaxen
Mongaup River
Neversink
NARROWS-BURG
River
Lake Wallenpaupack
PORT JERVIS
MONTAGUE
NEW YORK
PENNSYLVANIA
STROUDSBURG
Delaware Water Gap
Lehigh
Musconetcong River
EASTON
PHILLIPSBURG
River
ALLENTOWN
NEW JERSEY
READING
Schuylkill
River
TRENTON
BRISTOL
River
Rancocas Creek
PHILADELPHIA
CHESTER
CAMDEN
MARCUS HOOK
Delaware
WILMINGTON
Christina River
Maurice River
MARYLAND
DELAWARE BAY
CAPE MAY
DELAWARE
CAPE HENLOPEN
N
5 0 5 10 15 20 25
MILES
VT
N.H
NEW YORK
MASS.
CONN
PENNSYLVANIA
W.VA
MARYLAND
NEW JERSEY
DELAWARE
VA
ATLANTIC OCEAN

continued

THE DELAWARE RIVER BASIN *continued*

Dams, Reservoirs, and Canals

The Pepacton Reservoir on the East Branch, the Cannonsville Reservoir on the West Branch, Lake Wallenpaupack on Wallenpaupack Creek, and the Neversink Reservoir on the Neversink River. The Chesapeake and Delaware Canal connects to the Chesapeake Bay between Chesapeake City, Md., and Delaware City, Del. The Delaware and Raritan Canal flows from Raven Rock to Trenton, N.J., and then to the Raritan River at New Brunswick, N.J.

Geologic Setting

The Delaware River Basin lies in two physiographic divisions: Appalachian Highlands, consisting of Piedmont Lowland, New England Upland, Valley and Ridge, and the Appalachian Plateau provinces; and Coastal Plain province in the Atlantic Plain division. Northwest of a line from Philadelphia to Trenton, the basin is underlain by flatlying and folded consolidated rocks including: sedimentary rocks such as shale, sandstone, conglomerate, limestone, and dolomite; and crystalline rocks such as gneiss, granite, and basalt. Unconsolidated sands, gravels, and clays occur in the southeast. Above Hancock, N.Y., are the rugged Catskills; below Hancock, the land is hilly as far as Trenton. Much of the region above Trenton is forested. Bedrock in most places is hard, dense, and relatively close to the surface. Below Trenton the land is flat.

Drainage Area

The basin area is 12,765 square miles and includes parts of Delaware, Maryland, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and New York.

Average Rainfall

An average of approximately 44 inches of rain falls annually in the basin.

Quality

The surface-water quality varies from excellent to poor. The Delaware and tributaries above Easton are of very good quality; between Bristol and Marcus Hook, the estuary is contaminated by industrial wastes (including acid mine drainage), municipal wastes, and sediment. The water is usually fresh in the tidal estuary above Philadelphia and brackish below. The groundwater quality varies from excellent above Philadelphia to poor in the Coastal Plain below because of saltwater encroachment or high iron content.

Major Cities

Port Jervis, N.Y.; Easton, Philadelphia, Chester, Reading, and Allentown, Pa.; Trenton and Camden, N.J.; and Wilmington, Del., are major cities of the Delaware River Basin.

Municipal and Industrial Water Use

More than 6½ million people use about 850 million gallons of ground and surface water each day. About 7 billion gallons of water (mostly from surface-water sources) is used for industrial and power generation purposes each day. The river is an important source of water for New York City (through the Delaware Aqueduct and its connecting tunnels), Easton and Philadelphia, Pa., and Phillipsburg and Trenton, N.J.

Commercial Water Use

Shipping in the estuary, hydroelectric power generation, and boating, fishing, and swimming are some of the ways in which water from the basin is used commercially.

Agriculture

Agricultural products which come from the basin are: fruits, poultry, corn, potatoes, soy beans, cattle, hogs, dairy, and general and truck farming products.

Industry

Industry in the basin includes: one of the greatest shipbuilding centers of the world, chemicals, cement, iron, steel, petroleum, clothing, paper, fertilizer, heavy machinery, and airplanes.

Minerals

Minerals found in the basin are: kaolin (pottery clay), sand, stone, gravel, coal, and agates.

Water Data

The Hydrologic Data Network, maintained by the U.S. Geological Survey in cooperation with the individual States, is the chief source of basic data on water in this country. In cooperation with other agencies, the U.S. Geological Survey maintains 16,500 gaging stations that measure high and low flow of rivers, lakes, and streams; 27,500 observation wells that collect data on levels and pumpage of ground water, and 8,200 stations that measure water quality. ◆

AMERICA'S BUREAU OF LAND MANAGEMENT

The following three pages are reprinted from U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Land Management, 1988 Report: Managing The Nation's Public Lands, pp. 1-3 (and 42).

Historical Perspective

In the last half of the 18th century and the first half of the 19th century, the United States Government acquired most of the land west of the Appalachian Mountains, eventually owning more than 1.5 billion acres of public domain -- lands that had never been in private ownership. Although the Federal Government has since titled most of this acreage to private citizens, industry, and State and local governments, some of the public domain lands were dedicated to establish the National Parks, National Forests, National Wildlife Refuges, military compounds, and other government facilities. However, approximately 270 million acres -- about one-eighth of the Nation -- remain today as public lands, which are managed by the Bureau of Land Management (BLM) for multiple uses. In addition, BLM also manages the mineral estate underlying another 300 million acres of lands administered or owned by other agencies or private interests. Most of this acreage is located in the western states, including Alaska, although small parcels are scattered across the eastern states.

In 1812, Congress established the General Land Office to administer the public domain, with the primary purpose of passing public domain lands into private ownership. The passage of the Taylor Grazing Act in 1934 and establishment of the U.S. Grazing Service provided for active range management on the public domain, but this was seen as interim management of the lands pending their final disposal into nonfederal ownership.

In 1946, the Presidential Reorganization Plan No. 2 merged the Grazing Service with the General Land Office to create the Bureau of Land Management within the Department of the Interior. BLM became responsible for managing all the resources on the Nation's public domain lands; however, with more than 2,000 unrelated and often conflicting laws pertaining to the public domain, the agency had no unified legislative authority to manage those lands.

The Federal Land Policy and Management Act

When Congress enacted the Federal Land Policy and Management Act of 1976 (FLPMA), it established a coherent legislative mandate for managing the public lands and made BLM a true multiple-use agency. The law recognized that the public lands are a national asset, providing goods, services, and vast natural resources for millions of Americans:

> ***. . Congress declares that it is the policy of the United States that . .***
>
> ***the public lands be managed in a manner that will protect the quality of scientific, scenic, historical, ecological, environmental, air and atmospheric, water resource, and archaeological values; that, where appropriate, will preserve and protect certain public lands in their natural condition; that will provide food and habitat for fish and wildlife and domestic animals; and that will provide for outdoor recreation and human occupancy and use . . .***
>
> ***the public lands be managed in a manner which recognizes the Nation's need for domestic sources of minerals, food, timber, and fiber from the public lands . . . .***
>
> ***(FLPMA, Section 102[a][8] and 101[a][12])***

continued

America's Resources

FLPMA provides a clear-cut policy that most public lands are to be retained in Federal ownership and managed by BLM under a concept of multiple use for all Americans, with the full participation of the public and a careful balancing of the interests of competing users. Today BLM manages a multitude of assets for the American public. They include:

- *about 1.4 billion barrels of proven oil reserves;*
- *approximately 12.5 trillion cubic feet of proven natural gas reserves;*
- *10 million animal-unit months of forage to support about 4.3 million head of domestic livestock;*
- *the major portion of the undiscovered but geologically predictable domestic deposits of aluminum, antimony, beryllium, bismuth, cadmium, chromium, cobalt, copper, fluorspar, lead, manganese, mercury, molybdenum, nickel, platinum group metals, silver, tungsten, and vanadium;*
- *almost 8 million acres of commercial forest land with a producing capacity of about 1.4 billion board feet each year;*
- *about 80 percent of the Nation's oil shale;*
- *more than 350 designated areas of critical environmental concern;*
- *all 11 of the Nation's major tar sand sites;*
- *thousands of unique recreational areas, including 32 Wild and Scenic Rivers, 22 National Trails, 472 developed and semi-developed recreation sites including 471 day-use units and 6,749 family camping units, 65,000 miles of roads suitable for recreation travel, 4.2 million acres of lakes and reservoirs, and thousands of areas open to a wide variety of recreational uses;*
- *about one-third of the Nation's coal supply;*
- *more than 465,000 acres of designated wilderness in 25 areas and more than 25 million acres under study for possible designation;*
- *some 35 percent of the Nation's uranium reserves;*
- *186 archaeological and historical listings in the National Register of Historic Places comprising more than 3,000 historical and archaeological properties that have nationally significant values;*
- *world class deposits of phosphate, sodium, lead, zinc, and potash;*
- *habitat for one out of every five big game animals in the United States, including many caribou, brown and grizzly bears, desert bighorn sheep, moose, mule deer, and antelope;*
- *nearly 85,000 miles of streams containing trout, salmon, and other sport fish — enough to encircle the Earth three and one-half times;*
- *prospective sources of geothermal energy on more than 55 million acres, plus 2 million acres of known geothermal resource areas; and*
- *approximately 96 percent of all wild horses and burros managed, protected, and controlled under the Wild Free-Roaming Horse and Burro Act of 1971.*

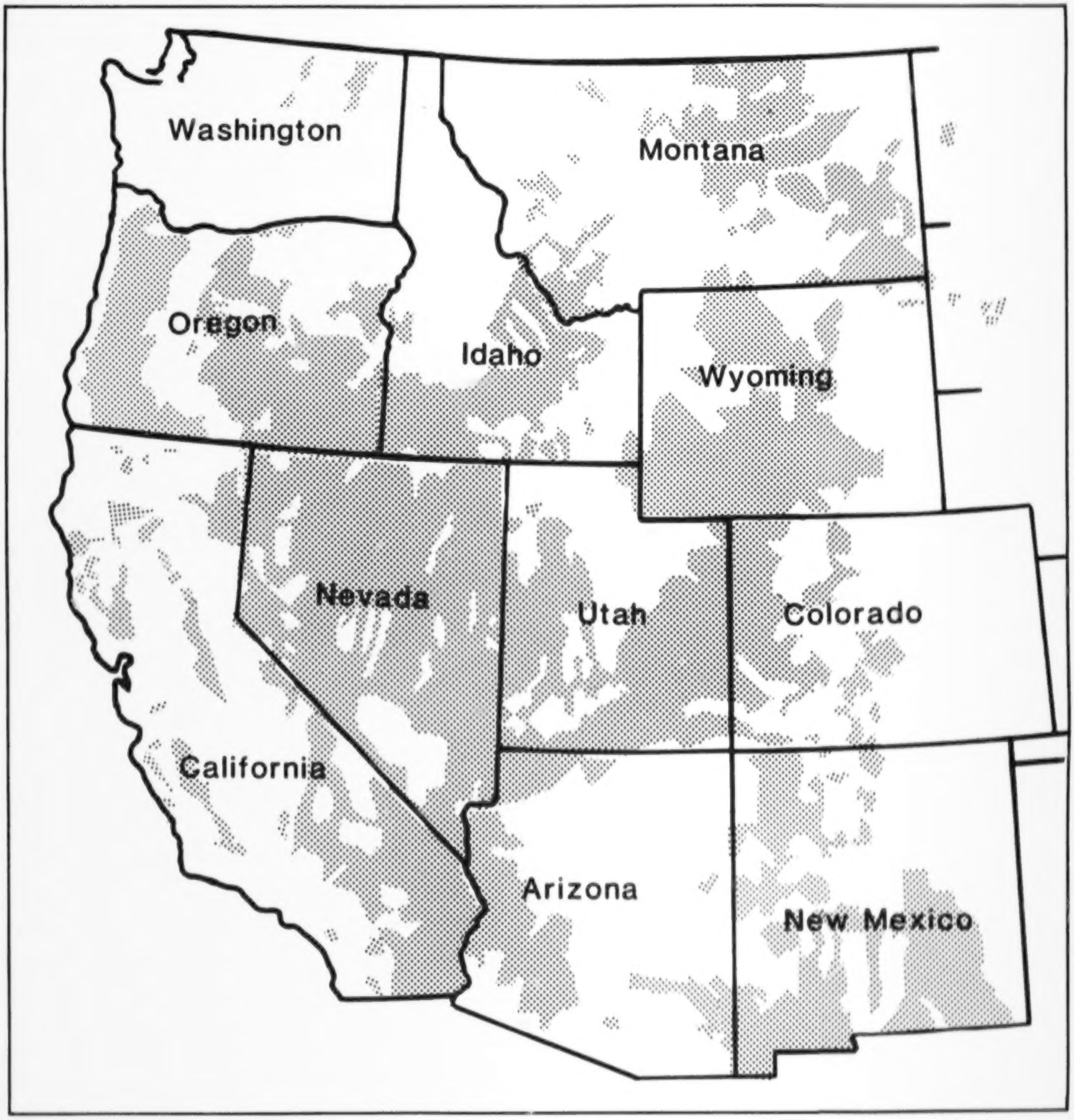
Multiple-Use Management

BLM manages all the Nation's public lands to meet the needs and desires of the American public. The magnitude and value of these resources frequently lead to conflicting demands and uses for the public lands. The FLPMA mandate for multiple-use management is BLM's most powerful tool for reconciling the differences of opinion about how the public lands are to be managed. Multiple-use provides for the development of needed resources, while protecting other resource values from inadvertent damage or destruction. Through a planning, decision making, and management process that balances alternative uses and involves the public at all steps, BLM can provide opportunities for many different uses of the public lands and ensure that its many resources will remain available to the public in the future.

American citizens can play a critical part in public land management — today and into the future. How Americans deal with the public lands today and tomorrow will determine what those lands will offer on BLM's 50th, 80th and 100th birthdays. BLM encourages all citizens to learn more about public lands, to become involved in their management, and to enjoy those lands. ◆

continued

PUBLIC LAND IN THE WESTERN STATES


Washington
Montana
Oregon
Idaho
Wyoming
Nevada
Utah
Colorado
California
Arizona
New Mexico

▨ Lands managed by Bureau of Land Management

World Eagle adaptation

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64 Washburn Ave., Wellesley, MA 02181

PROFILES

Slipping Fortunes

A combination of stagnant economies and a growing population has caused a regression in living standards for many people in Latin America and the Caribbean.

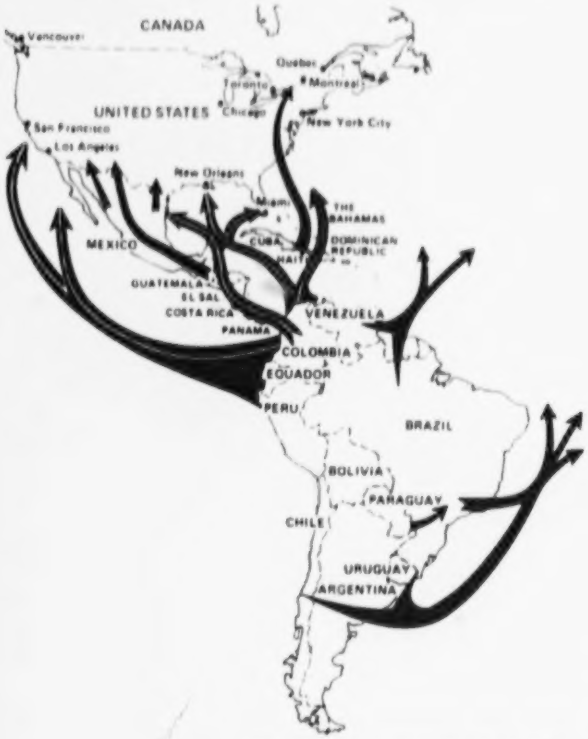
Per capita GDP (1988 dollars)

Country	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1988***
Argentina	2,384	3,075	3,359	2,862
Bahamas	8,448	10,737	10,631	11,317
Barbados	2,000	3,530	3,994	4,233
Bolivia	634	818	983	724
Brazil	1,013	1,372	2,481	2,449
Chile	1,845	2,236	2,448	2,518
Colombia	927	1,157	1,595	1,739
Costa Rica	1,435	1,825	2,394	2,235
Dom. Rep.	823	987	1,497	1,509
Ecuador	771	904	1,581	1,477
El Salvador	832	1,032	1,125	955
Guatemala	1,100	1,420	1,866	1,502
Guyana	1,008	1,111	1,215	995
Haiti	331	292	386	319
Honduras	619	782	954	851
Jamaica	1,610	2,364	1,880	1,843
Mexico	1,425	2,022	2,872	2,588
Nicaragua	1,055	1,495	1,147	819
Panama	1,264	2,017	2,622	2,229
Paraguay	779	931	1,612	1,557
Peru	1,233	1,554	1,716	1,503
Suriname	887	2,337	3,722	3,420
Trin. and Tob.	3,848	4,927	8,116	5,510
Uruguay	2,352	2,478	3,221	2,989
Venezuela	3,879	4,941	5,225	4,544
REGION	**1,374**	**1,802**	**2,512**	**2,336**

* Preliminary

Source: Inter-American Development Bank's The IDB, September-October 1989. (Received 1/19/90.)

Major Southern Drug Smuggling Routes


CANADA
Vancouver
Quebec
Toronto
Montreal
UNITED STATES
Chicago
New York City
San Francisco
Los Angeles
New Orleans
Miami
THE BAHAMAS
MEXICO
CUBA
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC
HAITI
GUATEMALA
EL SAL
COSTA RICA
PANAMA
VENEZUELA
COLOMBIA
ECUADOR
PERU
BRAZIL
BOLIVIA
PARAGUAY
CHILE
URUGUAY
ARGENTINA

Source: U.S. Customs Service, 1989

What About The Cost of The 1990 Census?

When the last report is published, probably sometime in 1993, the 10-year cost of the census will be approximately $2.5 billion, or about $10 per person. That's about $1 per person a year during the 1990s for the census facts that provide the statistical foundation for the nation's political, economic, social, and educational activities.

Federal and state governments, for example, distribute as much as $100 billion a year (or $1 trillion a decade) largely based on census numbers to counties and cities for a variety of social and community development programs. Almost the entire advertising and marketing industries are based on demographic statistics largely from the census. And businesses and governments use census numbers to determine where best to locate all sorts of facilities ranging from factories to health clinics.

Conceivably, then, the 1990 census could well be worth several trillions of dollars in value to the nation over the next 10 years. That may be the most impressive statistics of all from this year's big count.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Release CB90-N90.03, March 9, 1990.

continued

PROFILES continued

Outlays For The Legislative Branch of the Federal Government Will Top $2.3 Billion In FY 1990

The U.S. Office of Personnel Management reports that the legislative branch now employs over 37,600 workers. Congress itself has 19,500 on the payroll -- 7,400 in the Senate and 12,100 in the House.

Congress's committee system is comprised of 20 committees and 87 subcommittees in the Senate, employing over 770 professional staff, plus 27 committees and 155 subcommittees in the House, with 1,271 professional staff attached. Adding in the joint committees brings the total to over 50 committees and 250 subcommittees in the congressional bureaucracy, paying a professional staff of over 2,100 people.

Tax Foundation, Washington, DC. Tax Features, March 1990.

Selected Fiscal Years 1970-1990*

($ Thousands)

Unit	1970	1980	1989	1990
Senate	57,585	183,890	347,030	385,319
House of Representatives	108,279	324,569	549,189	571,112
Joint activities	13,295	73,084	152,675	167,016
Congress, total	179,159	581,543	1,048,894	1,123,447
Architect of the Capitol	18,797	89,496	122,037	195,728
Botanic Garden	620	1,583	2,502	2,660
Congressional Budget Office	-	12,101	17,617	19,019
General Accounting Office	69,857	201,192	334,811	356,703
Government Printing Office	34,141	115,747	70,884	96,593
Library of Congress	49,804	192,740	478,015	493,056
Office of Technology Assessment	-	11,131	17,870	18,354
U.S. Tax Court	2,972	9,703	25,626	29,502
Other	-	13,675	2,965	6,815
Deductions for offsetting receipts	-12,203	-10,926	-26,501	-24,932
Legislative agencies, total	163,988	636,442	1,045,826	1,193,498
Total	$ 343,147	$ 1,217,985	$ 2,094,720	$ 2,316,945

* Data for 1990 are estimates from the FY 1991 Budget presented in January 1990.

Source: Office of Management and Budget.

In The United Kingdom: Public Expenditure By Department

£ million

	Estimated outturn 1989-90	Plans 1990-91	1991-92	1992-93
Defence	20,311	21,202	22,360	23,430
Foreign and Commonwealth Office	2,451	2,600	2,750	2,850
Agriculture, Fisheries and Food	1,597	1,833	2,040	2,140
Trade and Industry	1,721	1,511	1,090	900
Energy	−139	−160	670	670
Employment	3,842	3,770	3,650	3,670
Transport	3,594	4,230	4,490	4,600
Environment – housing	2,560	6,268	6,720	6,920
Environment – other environmental services	1,395	1,406	1,260	1,210
Environment – local government	19,481	20,485	21,340	21,670
Home Office	4,221	4,840	5,010	5,160
Lord Chancellor's and Law Officers' departments	1,125	1,267	1,380	1,470
Education and Science	5,748	6,590	6,770	6,920
Arts and Libraries	459	494	520	540
Health and Office of Population Censuses and Surveys	20,133	22,202	23,510	24,630
Social Security	52,583	55,580	59,900	63,500
Scotland	9,028	9,576	10,090	10,400
Wales	3,870	4,457	4,590	4,720
Northern Ireland	5,780	5,968	6,240	6,460
Chancellor of the Exchequer's departments	4,223	4,609	4,880	5,130
Cabinet Office, Privy Council Office and Parliament	307	367	380	400
European Community	2,030	1,870	1,670	1,990
Reserve	-	3,000	6,000	9,000
Privatisation proceeds	−4,250	−5,000	−5,000	−5,000
Adjustment	−200	-	-	-
Planning total	161,900	178,965	192,300	203,400

Note Differences between totals and the sums of their component parts are due to rounding

Source: Survey of Current Affairs, Prepared for the Foreign and Commonwealth Office by Reference Services, Central Office of Information, London. February 1990. P.71.

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FROM THE U.S. DEPARTMENT OF ENERGY'S ANNUAL ENERGY OUTLOOK 1990:

Energy And The Environment

The U.S. economy is forecast to become increasingly dependent on fossil fuels, especially coal. Even as total consumption of energy grows by almost 30 percent in the next 20 years, the share of coal grows from 23 percent in 1989 to between 26 and 27 percent in 2010 (based on extreme economic growth assumptions). Coal demand is driven predominantly by the demand for electricity. The share accounted for by petroleum products declines by a comparable amount, but this masks a total increase of almost 20 percent in oil use over the forecast. Thus, it may be expected that today's concerns with acid rain, local automobile-related pollution, and global warming will not go away soon. Forecasts in this *AEO*[*] do not attempt to quantify these concerns or address new policy initiatives in the environmental area.

Perhaps improving the environmental outlook, natural gas use grows significantly, as gas maintains its share of the total energy market. As with coal, however, the growth in gas demand is predominantly for the generation of electricity. (Residential and commercial use of natural gas remains almost flat.) Gas is a relatively clean fuel with respect to carbon and sulfur emissions, but it is not without problems. Methane, the main constituent of natural gas, is also a greenhouse gas and is believed to be much more efficient in trapping heat than is carbon dioxide. Increased release of methane to the atmosphere associated with natural gas production and transportation activities may also be an environmental concern.

This *AEO*[*] includes some growth in the demand for renewable energy forms. That consumption is now principally at electric utilities (hydropower), industry (waste heat in pulp and paper), and homes (wood). Growth at utilities is constrained by available hydropower, and new growth is expected to be concentrated in industry and residences. No major inroads are expected in the transportation sector or from solar and wind technologies.

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[*] Annual Energy Outlook

p. 16

Energy Sources

For most U.S. citizens and businesses the future energy picture will not look very different from today, and many of the same energy concerns will remain. Oil supplies will be more concentrated in the Middle East, the United States will be more dependent on imports, energy costs will be higher in real terms, and environmental problems may be exacerbated by trends in fuel choice. At the same time, many changes in the way this country produces, prices, and uses energy may be expected that will contribute to sustained growth in an economy that can select from more forms of energy and that is technically more efficient in the use of energy.

Petroleum is and will remain the main source of energy for the United States into the 21st century. But as domestic production of crude oil falls, growing volumes of oil will need to be imported.
With only minor offsets from increased alcohol fuels and natural gas liquids supply, net petroleum imports grow 3.3 million barrels per day in total over the forecast, assuming high world oil prices, and 8.3 million barrels per day assuming low prices. As a basic source of energy to meet the Nation's growing requirements, only increased domestic coal production supplies more than imports. Increased coal and natural gas output are both needed to fuel the economy's growing demand for electricity.

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continued

ENERGY OUTLOOK continued

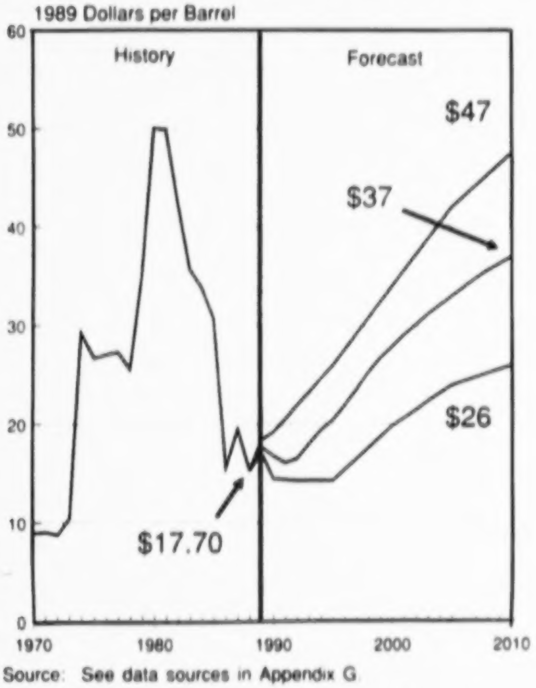
World Oil Prices

Relatively low oil prices may be anticipated for a few more years, as the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) works to control the combined output of member countries with dissimilar interests (Figure 1). Growing non-OPEC oil production is also contributing to current instability, although that growth is now slowing. By 2000, more fundamental forces of supply and demand should raise prices (absent any dramatic technological changes), as oil consumption rises toward world production capacity. Oil prices are forecast to rise from $18 per barrel in 1989 to between $26 and $47 per barrel by 2010 (1989 dollars).

OPEC's Near-Term Influence Is Tied to Management of Excess Capacity

In the current market, the ability (or inability) of a relatively small set of producers to limit their production to be much less than their production capacity is the key determinant of prices. OPEC has a difficult time controlling the output of its member countries, because those members are characterized by widely divergent social and economic problems and self interests. For example, some countries such as Saudi Arabia have extensive oil reserves which will last well into the next century. Given this fact, Saudi Arabia desires to maintain production and pricing in a manner that will guarantee a market for its oil over the long run. Other countries, such as Algeria, Libya, and Indonesia, have reserves that will not last nearly as long as those of Saudi Arabia and therefore are interested in receiving higher prices in the near term.

Oil Prices Rise Under All Scenarios



Source: See data sources in Appendix G.

Figure 1. U.S. Refiners' Acquisition Cost of Imported Crude Oil, 1970-2010

The consequences to Saudi Arabia, and the other OPEC members with high production, of past prices in the $40-per-barrel range are well documented, and such prices are the reason for the current problem (from OPEC's perspective). Prices at those levels caused decreases in demand and increases in non-OPEC production sufficient to drive OPEC's market share from about 70 percent to about 35 percent in less than 10 years (Figure 2). Technology has played an important role in getting to today's market situation. Technology lies behind much of the decline in oil use per dollar of economic output and behind non-OPEC production increases.

On the other hand, current relatively low prices should bring supply and demand more in balance in the future. Low prices have already caused moderate increases in demand, particularly in the United States and in the lesser developed countries. On the supply side non-OPEC production has continued to increase. However, the rate of increase is slowing, and most analysts expect non-OPEC production to begin declining sometime in the next 10 years.

Oil supply and demand have not reacted strongly to the low prices of the last couple of years. One reason for this is that governments in consuming and producing countries have reacted with policy changes to counteract some of the impacts of the fall in prices. For example, in Europe, consumers have seen little benefit of lower prices as taxes have increased in the face of falling prices. The non-OPEC producing countries lowered taxes on producers in a largely successful attempt to maintain the profitability of projects in light of lower prices.

The Longer Term Outlook for Oil Prices Reflects Dominance of OPEC Resource Base

Once the current excess in world oil production capacity is reduced, market and technological factors will more directly influence the intensity of energy and oil use (demand) and the ultimate market based cost of production (supply). Together, these factors

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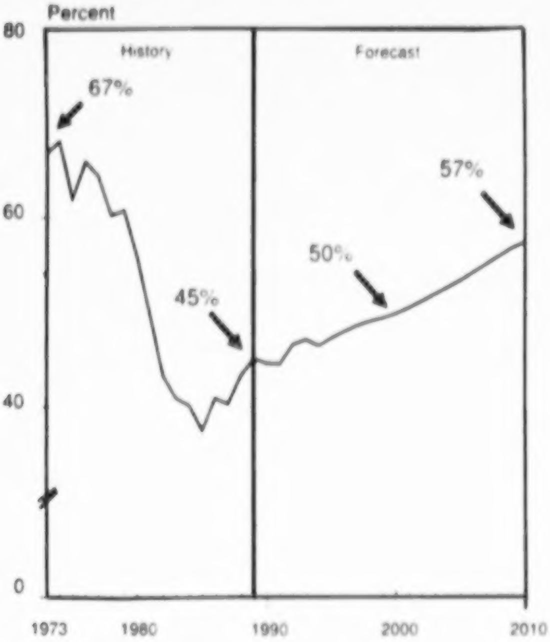
Source: U.S. Department of Energy. Annual Energy Outlook 1990. P.7.

continued

ENERGY OUTLOOK continued

OPEC Resumes Dominant Role in World Market



Source: See data sources in Appendix G

Figure 2. OPEC Oil Production as Percent of Market Economy Demand, Base Case, 1973-2010

determine the price of oil necessary to equilibrate the market.

During the early 1990's, oil production from various non-OPEC sources should continue to increase. However, by the late 1990's, as production from all non-OPEC sources declines, the market share of OPEC will steadily increase. In the base case forecast, OPEC's share of world oil production reaches almost 50 percent by 2000. Demand for OPEC oil approaches OPEC capacity in the late 1990's, and oil prices rise. The rate of increase in real world oil prices should be somewhat slower after 2000 than before 2000, as capacity increases (both inside and outside OPEC) begin to match demand requirements.

In the longer term, as oil demand rises toward production capacity, fundamental market forces will more directly influence world oil prices. . These economic forces are those which determine the supply and demand for oil and therefore are dependent on such factors as economic growth, technological change as applied to the production and consumption of energy, and the size of the resource base.

Improvements in the technology of locating and developing oil resources have long played an important role in bringing additional oil supplies to market. Oil prices will also be influenced by the cost of development of natural gas resources. Should natural gas turn out to be relatively inexpensive to develop and distribute, this additional pressure will continue to keep oil prices from rising too rapidly. While at present natural gas principally competes as a boiler fuel with oil, this market is large enough (especially in Europe) to have a major influence on oil prices.

Technology on the demand side is also an important factor in determining oil prices. Based on trends in declining energy use per dollar of gross domestic product (GDP) in major countries over the last 2 decades, energy use is clearly becoming more efficient--even taking changes in the product mix demanded into account. Product-mix effects have been reflected in shifting consumer preferences towards products that require less energy to produce. This trend does not represent "conservation" in the technological sense of producing the same output with less energy.

Changing Sources of World Supply and Demand

About two-thirds of the world's proved oil reserves are in the Middle East (virtually all in the Persian Gulf). Five countries--China, Mexico, Norway, the United States, and the Soviet Union--hold the vast majority of non-OPEC oil reserves. However, total non-OPEC production is expected to peak by the mid-1990's. The development of proved reserves discovered in the early 1980's should allow non-OPEC countries such as Syria, Colombia, India, Brazil, the United Kingdom, Norway, North Yemen, and South Yemen to increase oil production, but will only offset the decline in oil production from other non-OPEC countries. The net result will be increasingly concentrated production capacity within a small group of producers, particularly the Persian Gulf "core" producers of Saudi Arabia, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, and the United Arab Emirates.

Accounting for about four out of every five barrels of oil consumed in the world, the Market Economies (excluding the Centrally Planned Economies of Eastern Europe, the Soviet Union, and China) exert the major influence on oil consumption trends in the world as a whole (Table 2). And, oil consumption by these

Source: U.S. Department of Energy. Annual Energy Outlook 1990. P.8.

continued

ENERGY OUTLOOK continued

countries is expected to grow. At the same time, oil consumption in the Centrally Planned Economies is projected to decline steadily through 2010, with a shift to natural gas use in the Soviet Union. Much of the growth in oil consumption is projected to occur in the United States. Mexico, Brazil, and India are and should continue to be the largest consumers of oil among the developing counties. A major uncertainty concerning growth in oil demand in Mexico, Brazil, and other developing countries arises from the problem of Third World debt.

Economic Growth

The economy is assumed to grow at an average annual rate between 2.1 and 2.8 percent over the period 1989 through 2010 (Figure 3). Growth is slightly stronger in the earlier years of the forecast and levels off after 2000. This shift represents a continuing slowdown in the long-term rate of growth of the economy, which is fundamentally determined by the rate of expansion of the resource base of the economy—labor, capital, energy—and changes in the productivity of these factors.

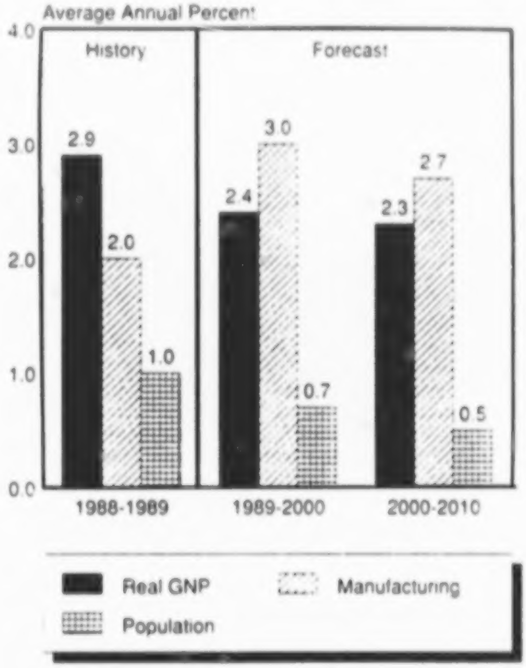
A decline in the rate of growth in the labor force is assumed to continue due to the slowing of population growth and a leveling off in the rate of entry of women into the workforce. The decline in labor force growth rates is a major contributor to the expected slowdown in the rate of growth in the potential output of the economy. Throughout the forecast period, growth in the capital stock is expected to improve relative to the rather weak growth of the 1980's.

Inflation, measured by the change in the implicit GNP price deflator, averages 4.0 to 5.5 percent over the forecast period, with prices increasing at a slightly higher rate during the later 10 years.

Interest rates decline early in the forecast period, and by 1995 attain relative stability over the remaining part of the forecast. Interest-rate sensitive sectors of the economy, such as housing and new cars sales, show flat growth over the period between 1989 and 2010.

The rate of overall industrial growth and the growth in each component sector are linked to the size and configuration of the aggregate economy. Personal expenditures on consumer items are expected to decline as a share of GNP. A larger share of the GNP is devoted to the production of goods going into investment and export categories of final demand. As a result, manufacturing output is expected to grow at a rate of between 2.2 and 3.3 percent through 2010.

However, the composition of industrial growth is uneven. Production of machinery (Standard Industrial Classifications 34-38) is expected to rise the fastest (2.9 to 4.4 percent per year through 2010), fundamentally driven by investment and export related demand. The largest component of growth within this sector is office equipment, including computers. Production within the primary metals sector (SIC 33) is expected to show a moderate rebound (0.8 to 1.9 percent) from the slow to negative growth of the 1980's. The recovery is primarily in the production of higher value-added products as opposed to raw, unprocessed basic commodities. Production in the chemical and plastic sectors (SIC 28 and SIC 30) is expected to show steady growth over the forecast period. Much of the growth in these sectors is also export driven.



Source: See data sources in Appendix G.

Figure 3. **Average Annual Growth Rates for Selected Economic Indicators, Base Case**

Source: U.S. Department of Energy. Annual Energy Outlook 1990. P.9.

OPINION

ENVIRONMENT WILL COMPEL YOUNG TO LEARN NEW VALUES, IROQUOIS FAITHKEEPER SAYS

The following is reprinted with permission from the Stanford University Campus Report, March 7, 1990. P.8.

By KATHLEEN O'TOOLE

He was an All-American athlete, but when Oren R. Lyons of Buffalo, N.Y. flies to Perth, Australia, this July, he'll be using another nation's passport so he can stand across a grass field from the U.S.A. team in international lacrosse competition.

For Lyons is also a member of the American Indian Athletic Hall of Fame, a "faithkeeper" of the Onondaga people and a chief of the Iroquois nation, a confederacy of six American Indian groups who have proudly insisted upon — and finally won U.S. congressional recognition for — their contribution to tenets of the U.S. Constitution.

The July 7 to 16 Perth lacrosse competition will be another type of milestone, for it will be the first time an American Indian team has "stepped onto the field as equals" to teams from the United States, England, Canada and Australia, Lyons told an audience of mostly Stanford students on Feb. 28.

The Iroquois team, traveling with Iroquois passports, has no home field, not even a shower, he said. "I don't know if we are going to win or not, but the idea is that at one time, the United States, England, Australia and Canada are going to stand at attention for our flag and our anthem," the professor of Native American studies at SUNY-Buffalo said.

The Australian organizers of the lacrosse tournament have asked Lyons to provide sheet music for the Iroquois national anthem.

"I said, 'No, we don't have any sheet music. We'll give you a cassette .' " he reported to his Stanford audience, whose members roared with laughter.

Lacrosse is not a sport that draws much attention in California, and it was not the subject that drew more than 150 people to Annenberg Auditorium to hear Lyons speak. They came for a lecture on the burgeoning conflict between the globe's human population and its resources.

Resources, Lyons said he believes, are not a separate category but other segments of the globe's population — segments threatened by the overpopulation of one segment, the human species. "We are the problem," he said.

His story about the lacrosse tournament meshed with his talk on the environment because the latter was largely about the differences and conflicts individuals face when deciding between tackling problems intellectually and on a mass scale — as in winning a symbolic sports victory for indigenous peoples — or passionately on the level of personal example.

On a personal level, Lyons conceded, he felt guilty about burning fuel oil to fly all the way from upstate New York to the San Francisco Bay Area, let alone to Perth. Yet the "excessive lifestyle of Californians" and the environmental wisdom of indigenous peoples who are "still in touch with the reality" of humans' connections to their environment prompted him to do both.

Indigenous peoples have "something to offer" the environmental movement because they know from experience that "as you cut the trees, the people go with it, all the animals go with it. It is not just the pines or the redwoods."

Lyons is one in a series of experts invited to speak at the annual winter quarter colloquium on environmental policy issues that is hosted by the University's Morrison Institute for Population and Resource Studies. This year, the Morrison Institute received a grant to bring scholars from less-developed countries to Stanford for cross-training with U.S. scholars on how people in different cultural positions view global problems and measures to combat them. In one sense, Lyons pointed out, he also was bringing a different home-grown per- where I come from, my background."

His is a story of a child raised with a respect for the environment that is difficult to convey intellectually, he said. Nobody "taught" him his perspective, he said. He "learned" it by "always being there" when his Onondaga community met and began each gathering by giving thanks for everything from the grasses and trees to the rain, the moon, "our elder brother the sun and onto the stars and finally our creator."

"When it's done correctly with a good speaker, this opening (to a meeting) can last two hours," he said.

"The reason why we do this is so that when you have your meeting, you know who you are. You are not the ruler of the world. It puts you in your place, so to speak."

In the last few years, Lyons said, citizens all over the world have developed the ability to "spout statistics" about the increasing rate of environmental degradation. But many seem to learn the facts without changing their "attitude" — their personal relationship to their environment. Asked by a student how policymakers might help spread his attitude on a mass scale, Lyons said, "Forget mass scale. Start with personal example."

Lyons and other American Indian chiefs have tried to spread their perspective, however, by conducting traditional American Indian "openings" at international environmental conferences. The most recent such meeting was a 1,000-delegate gathering in January in Moscow called the Global Forum of Spiritual and Parliamentary Leaders. A similar meeting of government, business and media decisionmakers was hosted by actor Robert Redford last August in Sundance, Wyo.

At the meeting hosted by the Soviets, Lyons noted, every foreign delegate group — students, scientists, etc. — was represented by their counterpart in the Soviet Union except for indigenous peoples.

As the "faithkeeper" of the Onondaga people and as chief of one of the Iroquois nations, Lyons said, "my job is to protect, defend all life. We (chiefs) see our job as looking out for the future" rather than for the current populace.

The job of a "futurist" in American mainstream culture, he noted, is to "forecast trends within the next five to 10 years" for the use of American corporations and institutions. The Iroquois futurists or faithkeepers remind their constituents not to ask for current perquisites. "We are instructed to make decisions for the benefit of the seventh generation out into the future," he said.

Lyons predicted to his mostly student audience that their generation worldwide will be forced to adopt a different set of values or perish with the environment. "I think the impact that probably will galvanize people into action is disease. Rich people won't be able to escape that.

"In the United States you're going to have to change the values of the stockholder because it all comes down to the stockholder. . . . Corporations have to show a profit because their stockholders are vicious, so it all comes back to the individual. You have to change your attitude. You have to reemphasize the importance of community and sharing important materials.

"If you don't, life will just end, that's all. In a very tough way."

He also urged his college audience not to "get on the case" of people in other nations for having more children than those in industrialized countries. "Each individual you people bring into the world uses 40 percent more than anybody else in the world." ◆

A Similar Voice A Century Ago:

"We do not inherit the Earth from our ancestors, we borrow it from our children."
Ralph Waldo Emerson, 1803-1882.

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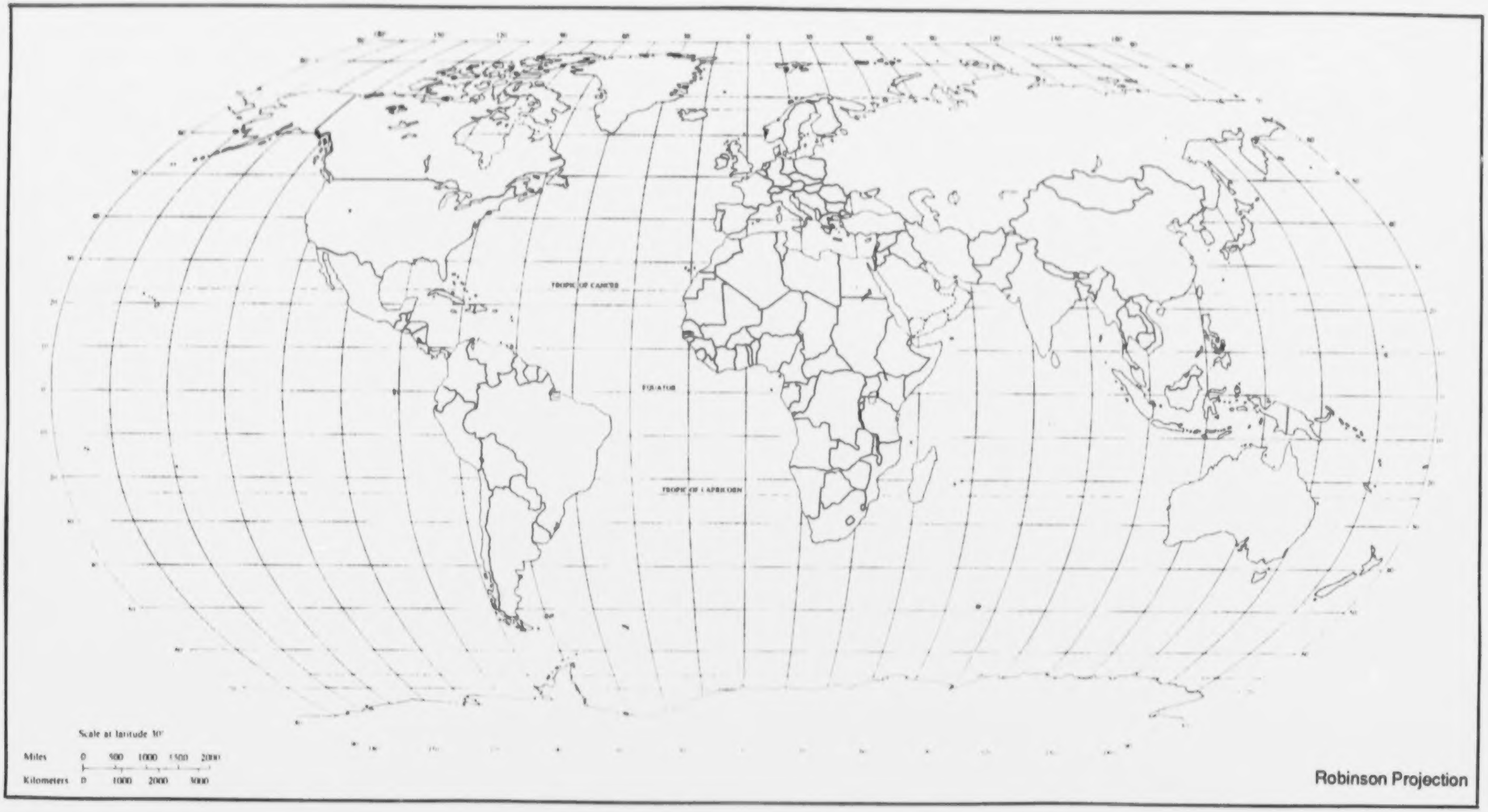
MAP OF THE WORLD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EQUATOR
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
Scale at latitude 30°
Miles 0 500 1000 1500 2000
Kilometers 0 1000 2000 3000
Robinson Projection

U.S. SUPPORT FOR EAST EUROPEAN DEMOCRACIES: THE SUPPORT FOR EAST EUROPEAN DEMOCRACY (SEED) ACT OF 1989

The following is reprinted from the U.S. Department of State's Gist, January 1990. The Department describes Gist as a quick reference aid on U.S. foreign relations, not a comprehensive policy statement.

Background: The democratic revolution that is sweeping Eastern Europe today presents the U.S. and its allies with a historic challenge and opportunity to realize the goal of half a century--the creation of a Europe that is whole and free. But if this goal is to be realized, the institutions and economies of these countries will have to be rebuilt so that political democracy and economic pluralism can survive and flourish. Much of the burden of completing this transformation falls squarely on the people of Eastern Europe. At the same time, democratic countries around the world have an enormous stake in their success. The U.S. Government is leading an unprecedented effort involving the private and public sectors of democratic countries to assist in turning statist economies into market economies, so that the unique human and physical resources of Eastern Europe can be mobilized to create free, prosperous societies.

U.S. Leadership: Leading this unprecedented transition, President Bush signed into law the Support for East European Democracy (SEED) Act of 1989 on November 28, 1989. This legislation provides for cost-effective programs, public and private, to assist countries of Eastern Europe that have taken substantive steps toward institutionalizing political democracy and economic pluralism. Initially, the SEED program focuses on Poland and Hungary, which embarked on the road to democratization earliest and have traveled farther down it.

Key elements: The five key elements in the SEED program are:

- Structural adjustment, designed to assist Poland and Hungary with major economic reforms, including currency convertibility, the ending of subsidies for inefficient industry, and the privatization of the economy. World Bank and International Monetary Fund programs, a $1 billion stabilization fund (to which the U.S. is contributing a grant of $200 million), debt relief and restructuring, and food aid are all parts of a coordinated program to assist in rapid restructuring of these economies.

- Private sector development, including loans, grants, equity investments, technical assistance, training, and guarantees, designed to develop healthy private sectors in Poland and Hungary. An innovative aspect of this program is the creation of Enterprise Funds for Poland and Hungary -- private nonprofit organizations that will combine public and private funding from the U.S. and the host country and invest in promising, profit-making private ventures. Other assistance will concentrate on training and developing entrepreneurs and managers and helping develop technical skills needed to make a free economy work. The SEED Act provides for Peace Corps programs in Poland and Hungary.

- Trade and investment programs, designed to encourage U.S. business to expand its role in Eastern Europe, particularly in developing the private sectors there. The law provides new authority to the Export-Import Bank, the Overseas Private Investment Corporation, and the Department of Commerce. We are negotiating business facilitation and investment treaties to improve the climate for U.S. business.

- Educational, cultural, and scientific activities, which concentrate on expanding publicly and privately funded scholarships and encouraging U.S. foundations to undertake projects designed to support political democracy and economic pluralism.

- Other assistance programs, including environmental and health programs and support for democratic institutions.

Funding and coordination: The Congress has authorized more than $900 million for the SEED program for fiscal years 1990, 1991, and 1992, and appropriated $536 million for fiscal year 1990. Major resources also will come from international financial institutions and special cooperative efforts. But new money alone will not make the transformation of East European economies possible. Only a coordinated private and public sector effort by the democratic countries, with primary emphasis on institutional change, offers the prospect of success. This is central to the concept of SEED, which involves some 20 U.S. Government agencies and calls for extensive policy planning, analysis, and private-sector outreach.

The President has appointed Deputy Secretary of State Lawrence S. Eagleburger as the coordinator of this effort, assisted by Chairman of the Council of Economic Advisers Michael J. Boskin and Deputy Secretary of the Treasury John E. Robson. The coordinator and deputy coordinators will set priorities and exchange information. An East European Business Information Center is being set up in the Commerce Department in Washington (and later in Poland and Hungary) to serve as a central clearinghouse for information relating to business needs and opportunities and voluntary assistance. For information, call (202) 377-2645.

The imagination of the American people, and the people of the world, has been fired by the democratic events unfolding in Eastern Europe. If this new wave of freedom and democracy is to be made irreversible, the economies must be rebuilt from the ground up. This is a monumental task for all the allies of democracy, demanding the leadership of the governments of the U.S. and the democratic countries and their private sectors. The SEED program provides a structure for such leadership. ◆

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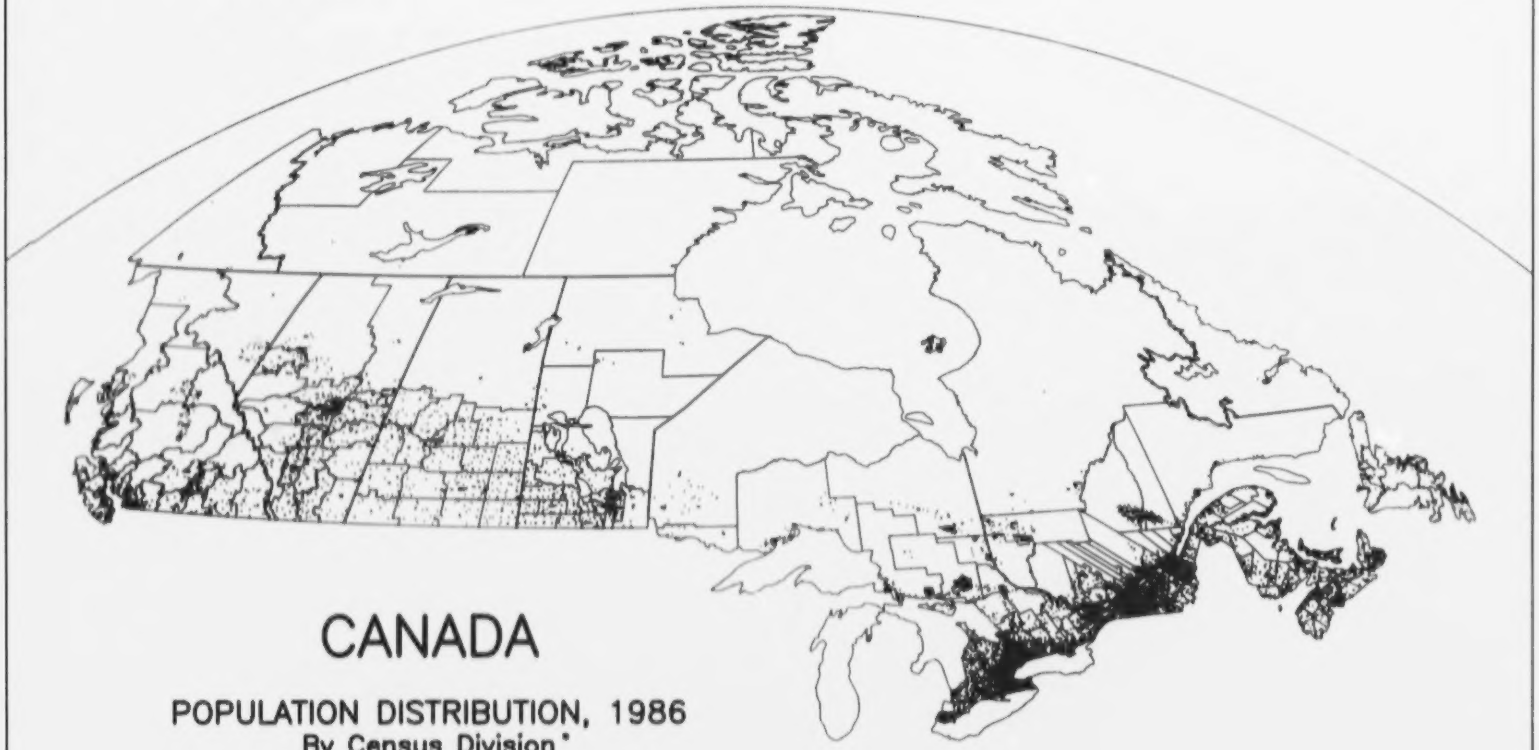


CANADA

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION, 1986
By Census Division*

RÉPARTITION DE LA POPULATION, 1986
Par division de recensement*

1 dot = 1000 persons
1 point = 1000 personnes

* Dots distributed by Census Subdivision
* Points distribués par subdivision de recensement

Source: 1986 Census of Canada.
Produced by the Geocartographics Division, Statistics Canada, 1988.

Map 1-1R/Carte 1-1R

Source: Recensement du Canada de 1986.
Préparé par la Division de la géocartographie, Statistique Canada, 1988.

NUMBER OF POLITICAL ACTION COMMITTEES (PACs) DECLINED IN 1989

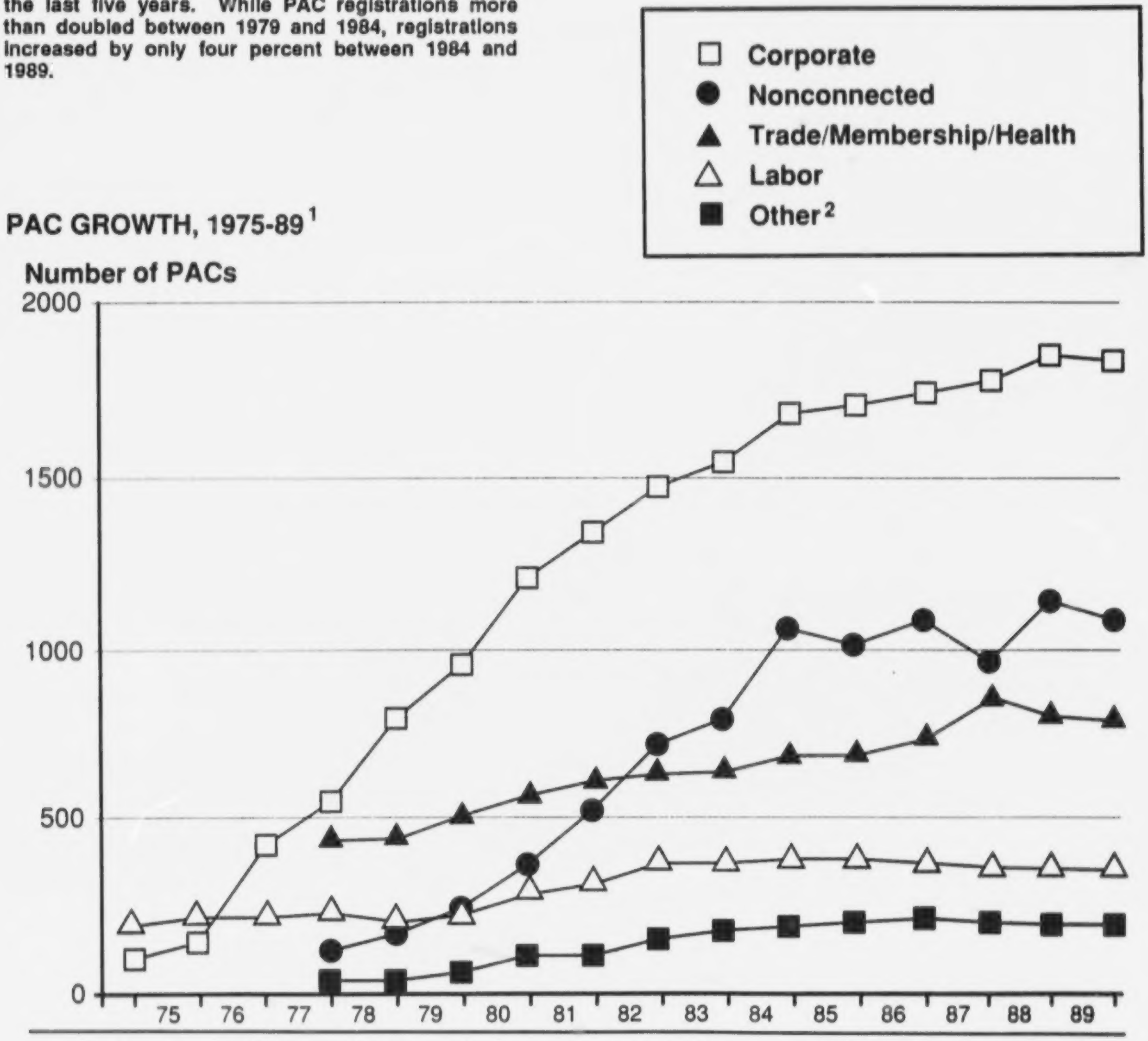
A recent Federal Election Commission survey of PACs – i.e., noncandidate and nonparty political committees – showed the past decade's sharpest drop in the number of registered committees.

At the close of 1989, 4,178 PACs were registered, representing a decline of 90 PACs since December 1988, when registrations hit an all-time high.

The rate of PAC growth has slowed considerably in the last five years. While PAC registrations more than doubled between 1979 and 1984, registrations increased by only four percent between 1984 and 1989.

The chart below depicts changes in the numbers of registered committees in different categories of sponsorship. Registration does not necessarily imply financial activity.

For more information on PAC growth, request a statistical press release from the Commission's Public Records Office. Call 800-424-9530 or 202-376-3140.


PAC GROWTH, 1975-89[1]

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[1] For the years 1974 through 1976, numbers are not available for Nonconnected PACs, Trade/Membership/Health PACs and PACs in the "Other" category.

[2] "Other" category includes PACs formed by corporations without capital stock and PACs formed by incorporated cooperatives.

Source: Federal Election Commission. Record, March 1990. P.19.

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STATE TAXES: CIGARETTES, GASOLINE, AND GENERAL SALES

	State Cigarette Tax Rates per Pack		State Gasoline Tax Rates per Gallon		State General Sales Tax Rates	
Region & State	**10/1/89**	**7/1/78**	**12/1/89**	**7/1/78**	**10/1/89**	**7/1/78**
U.S. Median	$.16	$.08	$.09	$.04	5.0%	4.0%
New England	.20	.12	.16	.08		
Connecticut	.40	.21	.20[a]	.11	8.0	7.0
Maine	.31[a]	.16	.17	.09	5.0	5.0
Massachusetts	.26	.21	.11	.085	5.0	5.0
New Hampshire	.21	.12	.14	.10		
Rhode Island	.37	.18	.20[b]	.10	6.0	6.0
Vermont	.17	.12	.15	.09	4.0	3.0
Mideast						
Delaware	.14	.14	.16	.11	—	—
District of Columbia	.17	.13	.18	.10	6.0	5.0
Maryland	.13	.10	.185	.09	5.0	5.0
New Jersey	.27	.19	.105	.08	6.0	5.0
New York	.33	.15	.08	.08	4.0	4.0
Pennsylvania	.18	.18	.12	.09	6.0	6.0
Great Lakes						
Illinois	.30	.12	.13[c]	.075	5.0[1]	4.0
Indiana	.155	.105	.15	.08	5.0	4.0
Michigan	.25	.11	.15	.09	4.0	4.0
Ohio	.18	.15	.18[d]	.07	5.0	4.0
Wisconsin	.30	.16	.208	.07	5.0	4.0
Plains						
Iowa	.31	.13	.20	.085	4.0	3.0
Kansas	.24	.11	.15[e]	.08	4.25	3.0
Minnesota	.38	.18	.20	.09	6.0	4.0
Missouri	.13	.09	.11	.07	4.425[2]	3.125
Nebraska	.27	.13	.22	.095	4.0	3.0
North Dakota	.30[c]	.11	.17	.08	5.0	3.0
South Dakota	.23	.12	.18	.08	4.0	4.0
Southeast						
Alabama	.165[d]	.12	.11	.07	4.0	4.0
Arkansas	.21	.1775	.135	.085	4.0	3.0
Florida	.24	.21	.04	.08	6.0	4.0
Georgia	.12	.12	.075[h]	.075[h]	4.0	3.0
Kentucky	.031	.03	.15	.09	5.0	5.0
Louisiana	.16	.11	.20	.08	4.0	3.0
Mississippi	.18	.11	.18	.09	6.0	5.0
North Carolina	.02	.02	.209	.09	3.0	3.0
South Carolina	.07	.07	.16	.09	5.0	3.0
Tennessee	.13[e]	.13	.21	.07	5.5	4.5
Virginia	.025	.025	.175	.09	3.5	3.0
West Virginia	.17	.17	.155	.105	6.0	3.0
Southwest						
Arizona	.15	.13	.17	.08	5.0	4.0
New Mexico	.15	.12	.162	.07	4.75	3.75
Oklahoma	.23	.13	.17	.0658	4.0	2.0
Texas	.26	.185	.15	.05	6.0	4.0
Rocky Mountain						
Colorado	.20	.10	.20	.07	3.0	3.0
Idaho	.18	.091	.18	.095	5.0	3.0
Montana	.16	.12	.20	.08		
Utah	.23	.08	.19	.09	5.0938[3]	4.0
Wyoming	.12	.08	.09	.08	3.0	3.0
Far West						
California	.35	.10	.09	.07	5.0[4]	4.75
Nevada	.35	.10	.1625	.06	5.75[5]	3.0
Oregon	.27[f]	.09	.16	.07		
Washington	.34	.16	.18	.11	6.5	4.6
Alaska	.29	.08	.08	.08		
Hawaii[6]	40%	40%	.11	.085	4.0	4.0

Cigarettes

[a] Rate increases to $.33 on 1/1/91.

[b] Credit granted for Federal excise tax paid ($.16 in 1988).

[c] Rate decreases to $.27 on 7/1/90.

[d] Local taxes extra.

[e] Additional $.05 per pack fee on distributors.

[f] Rate increased to $.28 on 11/1/89.

[g] Tax is 40% of wholesale price. On a per unit basis, Hawaii's tax is $.30 per pack.

Gasoline

[a] Scheduled to increase to $.22 on 7/1/90.

[b] Tax imposed at 11% of wholesale price.

[c] Scheduled to increase to $.19 on 1/1/90.

[d] Scheduled to increase to $.20 on 7/1/90.

[e] Scheduled to increase to $.16 on 7/1/90.

[f] Local tax rates range from $.01-$.04.

[g] Local tax rates range from $.01-$.06.

[h] Additional tax levied at 3% of retail sales price less the $.075 tax.

[j] Local tax rates range from $0.88-$.165.

General sales

[1] Illinois' rate is scheduled to be 6.25% after 1/1/90.

[2] Missouri's rate is scheduled to be 4.425% from 10/1/89 to 6/30/90, unless extended by the voters.

[3] Utah's rate is scheduled to decrease to 5% on 1/1/90.

[4] California's rate is temporarily increased to 5% to provide funds for earthquake relief.

[5] Includes statewide state-levied local tax of 3.75% and a 2% state rate.

[6] Hawaii levies its retail sales tax as part of a multirate general excise (gross receipts) tax.

Source: Excerpts from pages 74, 82, 83 of Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relation's Significant Features of Fiscal Federalism Volume 1 Budget Processes and Tax Systems. M-169. January 1990.

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Monthly abbreviations are: S, O, N, D, Ja, F, Mr, Ap, My, Je. A reference of S5 means September issue, page 5. PROFILES pages are indexed, and so, also are the individual items in them. A PROFILES (P) item on drug use in the November issue, page 18 would be indexed DRUGS: Use (P), N18, OPINION pages (O) are indexed and so are the items in them.

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